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FROM

THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL
OF ECONOMICS

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Issued Monthly
with Illustrations

MARCH—AUGUST, 1905

Volume XLI

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CHAUTAUQUA, NEW YORK

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1905

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The CHAUTAUQUAN

A Magazine of Things Worth While

SOCIAL CONDITIONS IN THE ROMANCE COUNTRIES

WEIMAR, THE ATHENS OF GERMANY

SCHUBERT AND HIS MUSIC

COMPULSORY INSURANCE

THE HIGH SCHOOL PERIOD

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THE WINTER PALACE PLACE, ST. PETERSBURG, WHERE WORKMEN SOUGHT AUDIENCE WITH THE TZAR

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

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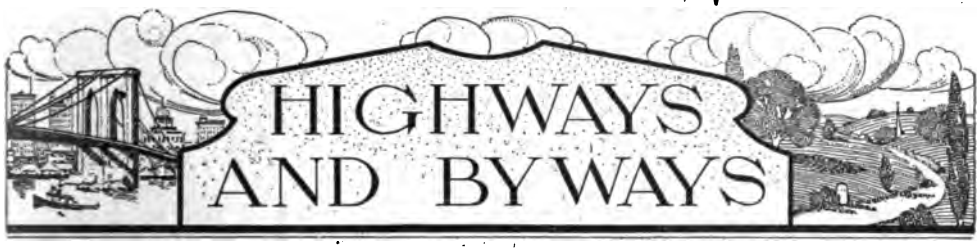

IT is certain that the last ten days of the month of January, 1905, will be regarded by the historian of the future, and by all students of political and social progress, as marking a turning point in Russian development. The revolution which many in Western Europe and America expected and hoped for after the news of the "Sunday (Jan. 22) massacre" at St. Petersburg had been flashed to the world, did not occur. Russia is not ripe for a revolutionary change; the 100,000,000 poor, half-starved peasants have not yet lost faith in autocracy, in the Tzar as the "father" of the people, and, as the agrarian disorders of 1902 showed, when the peasants rise they rise against the petty nobles, themselves poor and decadent, who are least responsible for the economic degradation of the country. There is doubtless much disaffection among the factory proletariat, the working population of the industrial centers of Russia, but this population does not exceed 3,000,000, according to late data, and it is scattered and unorganized and incapable of acting in concert.

There is evidence, however, that the revolutionary groups, the social-democratic and terrorist organizations, have secured a surprising hold upon the city proletariat, and under such leadership and influence much serious trouble can be caused to the autocracy in the industrial centers, notably in St. Petersburg, Moscow, Warsaw. Street demonstration can be suppressed by such violent and brutal methods as were resorted to in the Russian capital on the fateful Sunday in January. But passive "general strikes," incendiarism, attacks on the railway systems and other features of the kind of insurrection advocated in Russia by the terrorists may render the position of the government difficult in the extreme, especially during the progress of a foreign war.

It should be borne in mind that it is the situation in Manchuria—the long inactivity of Kuropatkin, the fall of Port Arthur, the destruction of the whole Far Eastern fleet, the North Sea affair—in short, the long series of disasters, defeats and blunders—which had prepared the soil for the internal crisis. The trouble in St. Petersburg originated in a mere strike at a private establishment. The workmen demanded higher pay, a reduction of the hours of labor and the correction of abuses in administration. They appealed to the government and were treated coldly. Had not the government discredited itself in the war, the strike, even had it spread, would hardly have assumed a political and anti-governmental character. As it was, not only did the strikers set the law at defiance, but in their petition to the Tzar they inserted a demand for a national assembly and a free election based on manhood suffrage to choose representatives of the various estates to such an assembly. And this demand was put forth as the most important and vital of all.

The firing of the troops on the petitioners, the wholesale arrests which followed, the appointment of General Trepoff, the worst of Russia's police tyrants, dictator at the capital and its environs, the outbreak of violence in other cities—all these incidents are familiar to

FATHER GAPON IN THE UNITED STATES?

This photograph, from W. W. Radcliffe of Baltimore, shows a group of foreign delegates to the Y. M. C. A. Jubilee Convention, Boston, June, 1901, standing in front of Plymouth Rock. By the star the photographer identifies Father Gapon (or Gopon) who led the Russian workmen in the recent disturbances at St. Petersburg.

the reader. The question suggested by them is what next? Has emancipation been brought nearer? Will the "Sunday massacre" have permanent moral effects? Will it teach the masses that death is the response of the autocracy to a petition of unarmed, peaceful subjects for some degree of popular government?

There is reason for thinking, as we said above, that a new political epoch has been ushered in in Russia. The government blundered fatally in not tolerating the demonstration and receiving the petition, and the faith of the peasants in the Tzar has no doubt been undermined, destroyed. The liberal, educated, thinking classes must have been convinced that the autocracy is intellectually and morally bankrupt. The zemstvos and the editors and writers, the lawyers, engineers, and professors, the independent officers of the army and navy, will continue to agitate. They cannot all be arrested, imprisoned and exiled. They have grown bolder and bolder of late, and the government cannot silence them. Concessions are inevitable—concessions not only to the working people, but to the intelligence and liberalism of the empire. The Russian autocracy has not been "overthrown," but it will be compelled to institute reforms which will gradually bring about its extinction. The beginning of the end is distinctly visible.

The Ministerial Change in France

At last the bitter and implacable opponents of the Combes ministry have brought about its retirement. They did not defeat the premier; his majority was not wiped out, and constitutionally he was under no obligation to resign. But he saw that the inroads upon his strength were so serious and constant that sooner or later a defeat upon a minor question, a point of order or procedure, would occur and force him to give up office under disadvantageous circumstances. In the interest of his policies, program and "party" (that is of the allied groups which con-

stituted his majority—the "bloc," as the French called it) he decided to retire voluntarily just after a desperate assault upon the ministry had been successfully repulsed.

The Combes ministry was, next to that of Waldeck-Rousseau, which it succeeded, the longest-lived cabinet of the Third Republic. It was formed in June, 1902, and dissolved in the third week of January last. Much of the work planned by Combes remains unfinished—notably the adoption of a progressive tax on incomes, the establishment of workmen's old age pensions and the disestablishment of the church. The great feature of his régime was the struggle with the Vatican and the consequent decision to abrogate the concordat and effect the separation of church and state. The law controlling religious associations and monastic orders he enforced with extreme vigor and resolution —with more vigor than the framer of the law, Waldeck-Rousseau, contemplated, as his correspondence, published since his death, indicates. Indeed, Combes's anti-clerical policy was too radical even for some of the extreme left republicans. He had a majority of eighty or ninety when he took office; in the last stage of his ministry it fell to ten on several critical occasions. What, however, undermined his position more than all other causes combined was the discovery of espionage and "delation" in the higher ranks of the army. Republican officers had gathered secret information about nationalist and clerical comrades and thereby sought to control promotions. Great indignation was caused by the exposure of these practices, though under reactionary cabinets exactly the same sort of espionage had been carried on by clerical officers against republicans in the army. There were stormy scenes in the chamber of deputies, ending in a physical assault on General André, the minister of war, who disclaimed sympathy with the practice and who, nevertheless, was forced to resign. Combes's attitude toward this affair was not entirely satisfactory to a faction of the "bloc," and this fact accounts for his retirement. He could not afford to risk future losses, he desired to preserve the majority in the

TZAR NICHOLAS II OF RUSSIA

LEO TOLSTOY AND MAXIM GORKY

Noted Russian writers and reformers. Gorky was arrested during the recent disturbances.

interest of the party's program and the welfare of the Republic which he thought in danger.

M. Combes's successor in the office of premier is M. Rouvier, minister of finance in the late cabinet. Associated with him are two of the members of the Combes ministry and several distinguished and experienced statesmen who have served in one or more previous cabinets. There are no members of the "opposition" in the Rouvier ministry, none, even, of the moderate republican group led by M. Meline, ex-premier and leader of the French protectionists. Rouvier is a radical republican, and the other ministers are affiliated with the same group, except one, the minister of war, who is a radical socialist.

GRAND DUKE VLADIMIR

One of the chief Russian bureaucrats.

The new cabinet, however, will not be as aggressive, especially in relation to the church-state problem as was that of Combes. It is expected to pursue a milder, more conciliatory policy toward the Vatican, though it accepts separation or disestablishment of the church as one of the necessary tasks of the near future. With regard to the taxation of incomes, workmen's old-age pensions and the reduction of the term of military service Premier Rouvier, according to his formal declaration to the chamber of deputies, will in the main adhere to the promises of his predecessor. He hopes to retain the support of the socialist group, without which indeed he cannot remain in power, but at the same time he will try to draw votes from certain elements of the "center." The reactionaries are not particularly pleased with the change, for it has left the "balance of power" practically where it was under the Combes régime, which was so hateful to them.

"The Big Stick" and the Monroe Doctrine

One of the principal issues of the November national election was President Roosevelt's foreign policy, described by the Democratic spokesmen as "the big-stick" policy. It applied practically to Central and Southern America, and Mr. Roosevelt's view, repeatedly expressed, was that the United States would not interfere with the most unstable and disorderly counries south of the United States so long as they discharged their obligations to foreigners and conducted themselves decently toward other nations. Critics of the administration argued that this was a revolutionary extension of the Monroe Doctrine, a virtual assumption of responsibility for the good behavior of Central and Southern governments and, as a corollary, a declaration of a protectorate over them.

For many years old-world writers and politicians have assailed the Monroe Doctrine as one-sided, incomplete and unfair. If, they reasoned, European powers may not punish South American countries, in the event of wrongdoing, repudiation of debts or aggression, by annexing their territory, it is the duty of the United

A SAMPLE OF THE SANTO DOMINGO NAVY

States, their moral guardian, to keep them in the path of virtue and honor. It cannot logically say, "Hands off" to aggrieved nations while refraining from disciplinary action toward the offending governments under its wing.

It appears, according to supporters of the administration, that the soundness of this contention is now admitted by our government The Monroe Doctrine is henceforth to be interpreted as conferring upon us the obligation to enforce fair play toward foreigners, as well as the privilege of forbidding territorial invasion or oppression of South American countries by old-world nations. In other words, we are to see that they do justice and give no offence, no occasion for warlike measures against them. The first application of this new policy is to be made in Santo Domingo. The little republic has not observed its promises to European creditors, and their patience seems to have been nearing exhaustion. Customs receipts had been set aside toward the discharging of debts overdue, but the payments have been irregular and inadequate. It is supposed that one or more powers would have made a demonstration in Dominican waters or seized the customs-houses of the republic. President Roosevelt, at any rate has induced President Morales to consent to American control of Dominican customs and American aid and advice in reorganizing the finances of Santo Domingo. A protocol to that effort has been drawn up, and a treaty embodying the proposed agreement is to be submitted to the Senate. There is considerable dissatisfaction with the arrangement in the Dominican Republic, and protests against it have been made even by prominent exiles from that country. In Europe it is hailed as an invaluable precedent.

M. ROUVIER
Successor of M. Combes as premier of France.

In explaining the plan our Department of State denies that any protectorate is involved though it is proposed to guarantee in the treaty the integrity of Santo Domingo. Opponents to the scheme in this country believe it to be fraught with grave and dangerous possibilities.

AN X-RAY VIEW

If the Tzar would but take a good look at Russia's little inside.

—From the Minneapolis Journal.

International Excavation of Herculaneum

A project of singular interest, archæologically and artistically, is being promoted by Professor Charles Waldstein of Cambridge University and other men of science. It involves the systematic excavation of Herculaneum, the ancient Roman city that was buried at the same time as Pompeii, in the year 79 A. D. A generation ago some excavation was attempted by Italian archæologists, but the work was difficult and costly, and was

soon abandoned. Even the little that was done, however, yielded rare treasures and nearly 2,000 important papyri. Bronzes were unearthed in a wonderful state of preservation, and it is believed by scientific men that thorough excavation would produce "a wealth of antique art." Sculpture surpassing any found at Athens or Delphi is supposed to be there.

WHITELAW REID
New U. S. Ambassador to Great Britain.

International action is advocated because the Italian government alone cannot undertake the work. It is proposed to collect funds in every civilized country and to organize national committees under the auspices of the heads of the several states to coöperate with an international committee of archæologists. The formal consent of the Italian government has not yet been obtained, but unofficial assurances of sympathy and favor have been given by the Italian ministry of public instruction. King Edward, Emperor William and Presidents Loubet of France and Roosevelt of the United States have manifested readiness to serve as the honorary chairmen of the respective national committees.

In lectures given in this country Professor Waldstein explained the project in detail and aroused much curiosity. Though there are but eight miles between the site of Heculaneum and that of Pompeii, the two cities were radically unlike. The latter was essentially a commercial city, while the former was a favorite summer resort of rich and cultured Romans and a center of Hellenic art and culture. Its private libraries and galleries were full of great works.

Though Pompeii was covered by the eruption of Vesuvius to a depth of fifteen feet only, while Herculaneum was buried, in many places, to a depth of eighty feet, from the archæologist's point of view Herculaneum was preserved rather than destroyed. It lies under a bed of mud and ashes. "At the climax of its development its life was suddenly arrested and buried so deep that neither iconoclast nor spoil-seeker could reach its treasures." These are believed to be untouched and unmodified; even the manuscripts cannot have been destroyed.

In reporting one of Professor Waldstein's lectures, a New York paper wrote as follows:

Professor Waldstein displayed a number of lantern slides, showing statues and heads in bronze and marble which were laid bare by the excavation of the Villa Piso, one of the stately palaces of ancient Herculaneum. There were specimens practically showing all the stages of transition in Greek sculpture, from the era of developed archaism to the age of Phidias, the first traces of Roman influence. All of these were so well preserved that in some instances they showed the marks of the sculptor's chisel, though they dated almost three thousand years back.

From this it is easy to infer how much history, science and art may profit from the excavations planned. Of course, the treasures are to remain in Italy, but the whole civilized world will derive inestimable benefit from the enterprise.

Radical Tendencies in Politics

After the presidential election it was a common remark that the great victory of the Republican candidates was not a victory for conservatism, least of all a victory for what has been colloquially described as "standpatism." It was recognized by all except a few "Bourbon" politicians that there was much radicalism in the country and much discontent and that a do-nothing policy would lead to a Republican defeat quite as sweeping as its November success.

The indications are numerous that these observations have not fallen on deaf ears. In national as well as in state politics proposals that, a few years ago, would have been condemned as "radical" are advanced and discussed with sympathy, interest and favor. The elected official who takes no decided stand for reform is treated as reactionary. In national politics the leading topics are tariff revision, control of railroad rates, federal regulation of great corporations and the stamping out of the rebate evil, not merely in its crude, direct forms, but in its indirect and artful forms—"divisions" of rates with so-called industrial or terminal railways, false damage suits, private car lines, etc.

It is not likely that at the present session of Congress any of these proposals will be embodied in legislative acts. The time is too short, and the discussion has not been thorough enough to lead to a crystalization of sentiment. But it is President Roosevelt's determination, apparently, to call a special session of Congress in the spring or autumn for the purpose of dealing with some of the "new" questions of practical politics.

But radical sentiment also finds clear expression in other than national issues.

THE FOUNDER OF THE HAGUE TRIBUNAL

—From the Chicago Record-Herald.

Many state executives have endorsed or demanded important reforms in various directions. Without attempting to name all of these, the drift is sufficiently illustrated by the inaugural addresses or messages of the new governors of Massachusetts, Illinois, Indiana, Wisconsin, Missouri and Minnesota. Some of these are Democrats and some Republicans, but no spirit of partisanship is to be detected in their recommendations. In fact, there is nothing Republican or Democratic about the new political questions. We may mention among the reforms proposed:

Direct nomination by the people of state, county and local officers at the primary elections.

Extension of the merit system in state employment, and the elimination of "spoils" or partisan appointments.

Provisions limiting the chief executive to one term of four years, in order to render him more independent in office.

Prohibition of professional lobbying.

Prohibition of that subtle form of bribery, free passes to public officials and legislators by the transportation companies.

The sale of all special franchises at public auction to the highest responsible bidder.

Forfeiture of all franchises upon valid proof that corrupt or improper influences were used in obtaining them.

Provision that no corporation be licensed to do business until its entire capital stock has been paid in, foreign corporations not to enjoy any greater privilege in this respect.

Home rule or local option applied to the taxation of property, real and personal.

These are significant recommendations, and whether the present legislatures heed them or not, public opinion has approved several of them and before long it will be impossible to refuse to give them effect. Progress in political thought and sentiment cannot fail to result in progress in political action.

The "Beef Trust" and the Government

Arguments were made some time ago before the United States Supreme Court in the case of the federal government versus the powerful packing companies of Chicago, which it will be remembered had been enjoined in 1893 by Judge Grosscup of the federal Circuit Court from contiuing a combination or agreement in restraint of trade, in violation of the so-called anti-trust law.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL MOODY
Who has recently won suit against the "beef trust."

The injunction was not resisted, but the companies demurred to the government's petition, and it is the decision overruling this demurrer that was taken up for review by the highest federal tribunal. A demurrer, it may be explained, is a pleading which admits the allegations of fact made by the plaintiff, for the sake of the argument, while disputing the conclusions of the law drawn therefrom. The packers in demurring, practically admitted the charges the Department of Justice had preferred against them, but raised the point that no ground for an injunction, or any interference with them, had been shown to exist.

In arguing the case before the court, Attorney-General Moody asserted, however, that the packers had plainly violated the interstate commerce law by their agreements in relation not only to the sale of their goods (fresh meats chiefly) in several states, but also to the purchase of live stock and the transportation of their products He accused them of artificially depressing the prices of their "raw material," of artificially maintaining the prices of that which they sell and of obtaining rebates from the railroads.

The main contention of the packers' attorney was that the alleged contracts and combination were not in restraint of *interstate* commerce. They relied on an old decision distinguishing between *production* and *commerce* and holding that the federal trust law does not apply to attempts, however succesful and outrageous, to do away with competition in the production or manufacture of goods, even if the parties to the agreement or combination reside and carry on business in different states. They asserted that the packers' agreements, in any case, did not relate to commerce among the states, but either to production or to commerce in particular states.

While not so sensational as the "merger" suit, the case against the packers was one of the most important carried up to the Supreme Court since the enactment of the Sherman law now nearly fourteen years ago. The court, to the surprise of not a few lawyers, rendered a prompt and unanimous decision practically sustaining the position of the Department of Justice in every material particular. While the injunction was modified and made to apply only to

THE AMERICAN GRAND DUKE
—From the Minneapolis Journal.

specified modes of restraining trade and competition, the court held that the allegations against the packers, in their totality, set up systematic violations of the anti-trust law. While any one of the packers' operations might not constitute interstate commerce, the whole chain, including the buying of live stock, the sale of fresh meat, the obtainment of rebates from railroads, was declared to affect or involve interstate commerce.

The packers assert that the decision is of theoretical importance only, as they never committed any of the acts which the demurrer admitted in form; but reports from Washington speak of the likelihood of prosecutions of the packers under the criminal clauses of the anti-trust act.

Commerce and the States

Three decisions recently rendered by the United States Supreme Court throw some light on the question revived by the suggestions of the commissioner of the bureau of corporations, Mr. Garfield. The commissioner holds that the interstate commerce clause of the Constitution empowers Congress to require all corporations doing business in more than one state to obtain a federal license and, as a pre-requisite, to comply with certain regulations as to organization, management and publicity. The objection strenuously urged against this plan is that it would destroy the sovereignty and power of the states, and unduly centralize the governmental functions so far as they relate to industry and trade.

In one of the three cases referred to, the Supreme Court held that the state of Iowa could not, in applying its own liquor and excise law, prohibit the shipment of liquor C. O. D. in original packages, into the state from points outside. If C. O. D. shipments, said the court, were within the control of the state a great deal of interstate commerce would soon be taken out of the control of Congress. The decision is a material extension of the original doctrine in relation to the shipment of goods in certain "packages" into prohibition states.

In another Iowa case it was held that an express company's office where liquor is received in packages and whence deliveries are made cannot be treated as a place where liquor is sold, even when the company collects the cash and forwards it to the vendor. An interference with the business of express companies in these circumstances would constitute an obstruction of interstate commerce.

PROF. C. P. NEILL
New Commissioner of Labor.

The third case arose in Georgia and involved another aspect of the question. Can a state enact a law holding the initial carrier of goods liable for damage to the goods when the injury actually occurs outside of the state? The court decided that such a law is an attempt to control interstate commerce, and as such null and void.

In none of these cases, it has been remarked, has any of the interests involved taken exception to the "invasion of state rights." Where the question is one of exemption from regulations, burdens or prohibitions enforced by the states, corporations eagerly welcome the shelter of the interstate commerce clause. It is only when federal regulation is proposed, even in a mild form, that they manifest profound anxiety over the prerogatives and sovereignty of the states.

The corollary drawn from the above decisions is that, if congress may force one state to admit the goods of another state, or forbid a state to collect damages for injuries done to goods in another state, by virtue of its exclusive control of all

interstate commerce is is no revolutionary departure to suggest that congress might compel corporations to apply for a federal license or franchise before they enter for business purposes other states than those in which they are severally incorporated.

SAMUEL W. PENNYPACKER
Governor of Pennsylvania.

Wise or unwise, the proposal, even according to Democratic lawyers of the Jeffersonian faith, is not legally or theoretically startling. Congress has *possessed* the power of licensing and controlling corporations engaged in interstate commerce from the beginning of the federal government; it has not exercised it, it is true, and the question is rather whether it is expedient to exercise it. That this is a serious and difficult question cannot be doubted. There seems to be little likelihood of early legislation along the lines of the Garfield proposal.

A New Way of Treating Lobbyists

The evil of "professional lobbying" is sufficiently and painfully familiar to American legislators. There are, of course, lobbyists and lobbyists. Any one who, interested in a pending bill, goes to the capital to work against it is a lobbyist, but not a professional lobbyist. Reformers who urge new legislation are lobbyists for the time being. The right to present views and arguments to legislative committees and individual legislators is fundamental.

But the professional lobbyist is, as a rule, the agent of a syndicate or combinaton or private corporation which seeks to influence legislators in secret, improper, corrupt ways. If this lobbyist is denied the privilege of the floor—something the legislature can do by a simple rule—he visits members at their rooms and "buttonholes" them on the street. Wherever franchises are "grabbed," illegitimate privileges granted or vicious measures adopted, there the professional lobbyist has been hard at work. How can his pernicious activity be stopped and the weak lawmaker protected from temptations?

Missouri has had more than her share of corrupt legislation, and the new executive of the state, Mr. Folk, determined at the outset to control and check the professional lobbyist. He has recommended an act to prohibit such lobbying, but this is not likely to be passed, and, in any event, it would not have affected the present session of the legislature. He therefore formulated the following "rules" for the professional lobbyists:

1. On arrival at the state capital, or as soon as possible thereafter, they must report their presence at the executive's office.

2. They must state the object of their visit and give full information to the newspapers.

3. They must transact their business in thirty hours and leave the city.

All this may seem like a plot from a comic opera, or suggest the edicts of oriental despots. It may be asked by what right and under what law Governor Folk has promulgated these rules; and how he proposes to enforce them. Has not the lobbyist the right to move about at will, to stay in the capital as long as he sees fit? He has, undoubtedly; but the governor does not rely on any legal power or means to effect his reform. He merely announces that he will rigidly investigate the activities of any lobbyist who disobeys the rules and prosecute the person or corporation found to be guilty of attempting bribery or the use of other improper means. It is this threat which seems to have operated as an effectual deterrent,

for a general exodus of lobbyists has been reported. The reform may not be permanent, and the long distance telephone may be used with more industry and success. Still, the remarkable rules have attracted considerable attention and may be copied by other executives with at least temporary advantage.

Attacks on the Press in Pennsylvania

Governor Pennypacker of Pennsylvania has not been fortunate in his experience with the newspaper press. His anti-cartoon bill, designed to prevent and punish the caricaturing of public men, has been a dead letter from the first. Not the slightest effort was made at any time since its enactment to carry out its provisions. Yet, undeterred by this lesson, the governor now proposes an anti-press measure much more restrictive and drastic. It is directed against those journals which the Pennsylvania executive regards as scurrilous, slanderous, sensational, reckless and vicious.

No one will defend this sort of journalism, but the method of dealing with it urged by Governor Pennypacker is open to serious objections. It is not at all certain that it would prove effective in the right direction, and if it proved effective at all, it might do so in a way neither intended nor desired. Shocked by "gross headlines, vulgar and perverted art, relish for horrible crimes," and deliberate publication of false reports for the purpose of increasing ill-gotten gains, the governor declares that some remedy must be found for this crying evil. His specific suggestions are contained in the following extract from his message to the legislature:

Under the English common law, when a woman habitually made outcries of scandals upon the public highways to the annoyance of the neighborhood, she was held to be a common scold and a public nuisance. Anybody may abate a public nuisance, and she was punished by being ducked in a neighboring pond.

To punish an old woman, whose scandalous outcries are confined to the precincts of one alley, and to overlook the ululations which are daily dinned into the ears of an unwilling but helpless public by such journals as have been described, is unjust to both her and them. I suggest the application of this legal principle to the habitual publication of scandalous untruths.

THE LATE THEODORE THOMAS
Famous orchestra leader
Copyright by Langdon

Let the person harmed or annoyed present a petition to the Attorney General setting forth the facts, and if, in his judgment, they show a case of habitual falsehood, defamation and scandal so as to constitute a public nuisance, let him file a bill in the Court of Common Pleas having jurisdiction, asking for an abatement of the nuisance, and let the Court have authority, upon sufficient proof, to make such abatement by suppression of the journal so offensive, in whole or in part, as may be necessary.

Whether the constitution of the state permits the "suppression" of newspapers in the manner set forth is a legal question. Presumably the executive, as a former judge, has satisfied himself of the legality of his proposal. Granting this, the moral or social objection arises that the remedy might prove worse than the disease. The weapon would undoubtedly be employed by corrupt bosses and politicians (such as Pennsylvania has a superabundance of) to stifle independent journalism and honest, courageous criticism. The governor himself, whose honesty and earnestness all recognize, has not always distinguished between yellow journalism and outspoken, independent, anti-machine journalism. To dishonest bosses whose schemes will not stand analysis and inspection any aggressive newspaper that

cannot be controlled appears "yellow," What a weapon the Pennypacker bill would place in their hands! It is not believed that the dominant party in the Pennsylvania legislature will make a real effort to enact the bill into law.

The Work of Child Saving

Much interest has been displayed this winter in the work of the Juvenile Courts —those special tribunals established in certain states and cities for the trial and disposition of cases in which the defendants are mere children under the age of sixteen. Now that the Juvenile Court is an established institution, the intelligent and humane person wonders how society could do without it as long as it did.

Under the old system delinquent children were tried exactly as adults accused of crime are tried. Procedure, methods and surroundings were the same and juvenile reformatories were merely prisons for children. Punishment, not redemption or protection or prevention, was the informing principle. The Juvenile Court has wrought a revolution in the application of the laws of society to child-offenders.

To Chicago belongs the credit of doing pioneer work in this direction and blazing the way. There the first Juvenile Court was established under an act of the legislature passed in 1899. The act applied to dependent, neglected, and delinquent children, and by "delinquent" was meant, originally, a child who has violated some law. By amendment the term has been extended to cover children growing up in vice and idleness or found in the company of criminals.

According to an account in *Charities* by Miss Julia Lathrop of Chicago, the new system has had the most beneficent results. The number of boy prisoners confined in Cook County has been reduced from 1,078 in 1898 to 70 in 1903; of the 715 children "paroled" in 1904 (and placed under the supervision of probation officers) only 40 were brought before the judge a second time. Many children are placed in private homes, and no stigma whatever attaches to them.

Editorially, *Charities* says that the Juvenile Court is "one of the great contributions of the past decade to preventative social work." Being such a contribution, it is gratifying to learn that it has "spread with a rapidity hitherto unknown in practical movements for social betterment."

Juvenile Courts have been organized under special laws by a number of American states and cities. Several legislatures have had bills for such courts under consideration this year. Ireland, Australia and New Zealand, and one Canadian city, have followed our example, and England and Austria are investigating the new departure in penology with a view to similar action.

Much of the effectiveness of the new system is due to the probation feature, which has now been adopted for adults and children in nineteen states of the Union. The probation officers prevent "lapses" and not only watch but protect and guide and aid their legal "wards."

What the Paragraphers Say

LESS EXPENSIVE.—"No, sir," said the promoter of gigantic schemes, "I never bought a politician in my life."

"So?" queried the skeptical person.

"Fact," answered the other. "I find it cheaper to rent them for occasional use."—*Chicago News.*

PROMISING CHIP.—His Mother (suddenly entering the children's room)—"Why, Tommy, you ought to be ashamed to have so untidy a desk! And why have you scattered these scraps of paper all over the floor?"

Tommy (with a pencil behind each ear)—"I'm playin' I'm carryin' on a real business, same as papa does."—*Chicago Tribune.*

Recent Social Conditions in the Romance Countries

By Frederic Austin Ogg

University of Indiana. Author of "Saxon and Slav."

THE classification of nations on the basis of either race or language is difficult and always apt to be misleading. The most casual student of the Europe of the present day, however, cannot fail to see that, from almost any conceivable point of view, the states which in past centuries have been built up on that continent fall naturally into several more or less clearly distinguished groups. Speaking generally, these may be enumerated somewhat as follows: (1) Great Britain, (2) Germany, Holland, Denmark and Scandinavia, (3) Russia, (4) Austria and the Balkan states, and (5) the so-called Romance countries—France, Italy, and Spain. The few fragmentary states left out of this arrangement are not proportionately important, though by stretching the classification somewhat they might be made to find a place under it.

The grouping together of the Romance countries, while done in the face of numerous and far-reaching differences among them, has yet a pretty solid basis of reason. It is obvious that they are closely related geographically, and this fact in itself is not without importance. Penetrating their remoter history one finds also that in the matter of racial origins they have much in common. The modern populations of all three are the product of the welding of Roman and Teutonic elements in the early Middle Ages and they are called "romance" peoples primarily because their languages are all a cross between Latin and early Germanic speech. Modern French, Italian, and Spanish represent simply the developed results of the efforts of three great branches of Germans to make use of the Latin language in daily life. Leaving out of account numerous relatively unimportant elements which have from time to time been introduced, the people of the three Romance countries are founded on very much the same racial stocks and have never grown so far apart but that they have some great underlying characteristics in common. In the third place, ever since the spread of Christianity into western Europe the dominant religion of the three peoples has been the same, *i. e.*, Roman Catholic. And finally,

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This is the seventh of a series of nine articles on "Social Progress in Europe." The complete list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Some Features of the Old Régime (September).
Reaction and the Republican Revival (November).
Era of Social Experiment (December).
England and the Industrial Revolution (January).
The Great Era of English Reform (February).
Recent Social Conditions in the Romance Countries (March).
Germany and the Progress of Socialism (April).
Social and Industrial Russia (May).

tion is 113 to the square mile, as compared with 73 in France. This does not sound so bad, but it must be remembered that the population is very unevenly distributed. Great areas of the country, owing to barren mountain ranges and pestiferous

GIUSEPPE MAZZINI

Noted Italian patriot who established the secret revolutionary society known as "Young Italy."

swamps, are all but uninhabited, while others, as parts of Lombardy and Venetia, are compelled to support a denser population than any part of Europe except Belgium. It is said on good authority that the Po valley has one-third too many workingmen. And unfortunately it is just there that Italy's enormous birth-rate reaches its maximum. As a single example of this congestion may be cited the city of Milan which, though in many ways the most prosperous in Italy, contains tenement houses where thousands of people are crowded together under conditions too heart-rending for description.

As compared with England, France, Germany, and even Austria, Italy is a poor country. Backwardness of agriculture, lack of manufactures, and decay of commerce, on the one hand, and large, even extravagant, national expenditures on the other, have reduced the state to a pitiable condition financially. There are some recent signs of improvement, but conditions are yet bad enough. This is evidenced on every hand by the prevailing scale of salaries and wages, which is considerably lower than in any other country of western Europe. The ordinary agricultural laborer receives but from eight to thirty-two cents a day on an average throughout the year, and from ten to thirty-eight cents in the summer, the lower rates prevailing in the south and the higher in the north. Even skilled artisans, as carpenters and masons, often receive as little as twenty-three cents, and rarely more than a dollar. Wages in England and France are two and a half times higher than in Italy, and in Germany from thirty to fifty per cent higher.

Italy has long been, and must remain, preëminently an agricultural country. More than sixty per cent of the people are engaged in tilling the soil. Yet the opportunities for good living, and even for wealth, which farming carries with it in America are all but unknown among the Italians. In the first place, the land is not naturally fertile. One-tenth of it is barren rock and a third rugged mountain. Much that is fertile is so fever-haunted as to be inhabited only at great risk. Fully eighty per cent of the people south of Rome are exposed to the ravages of malaria. Hail and drought constitute two other vexatious curses of Italian agriculture. Then there is also a peculiar disease, known as the *phylloxera*, which has made such headway in its inroads upon the vineyards that it threatens fairly to destroy the entire vine-growing industry. Finally, and perhaps most important, is the dominance of the landlord system. The majority of Italian farmers are tenants rather than peasant proprietors, and though the number of landowners tends constantly to increase, one of the most discouraging features of Ital-

by King Humbert to bear greetings to M. Faure, president of the French Republic, declared, "We Italians are not yet what we will become; it will take one hundred years more for us to show of what we are capable." From this viewpoint every judgment of the Italy, and of the Italians, of today should be made with charity. It would be unreasonable to expect that under the conditions of political disunion and strife which existed before 1870 any very substantial progress should have been made. In most respects the Italians until a generation ago were at the mercy of their stronger neighbors, especially the Austrians and the French. It was only after oppressive foreign influence had been eliminated and the people of the peninsula had become able to look out upon a fair prospect of peace and concord that national sentiment was free to express itself in important lines other than military and political. During the last thirty-five years a measure of social and industrial progress has been made which, when conditions are taken fully into account, will appeal to any one as really remarkable.

Writers and observers, however, are apt to take widely contrasted views as to the actual amount and permanence of this progress. This no doubt arises from a consideration which was well brought out in an essay some years ago by an Italian, Salvatore Cortesi, in the following words:

Italy has, in her short life as a kingdom, made proportionately immensely greater advance than any other country. This advance has in fact been accomplished with such rapidity and feverishness that the law of time, which should have taught that the solidity of things is in indirect proportion to the quickness with which they are made, has not been taken into account. The consequence is that much of the work done is mediocre, and much must be changed, thus leading to a waste of money, which, if employed with more parsimony and more discretion would have produced lasting and useful results. For this reason those who watch the evolution of Italy usually fall into two extremes: either overlooking the praiseworthy effort, they see merely the mistakes, and so predict failure; or they see the effort and consider it a successful accomplishment.

In the study of Italy of today it is desirable therefore to look carefully into the evils which exist, but also not to omit to take a view of the brighter side of the period.

VICTOR EMMANUEL II
Of Sardinia. Became King of Italy in 1861.

The social and industrial backwardness which so generally exists among the modern Italians may be assigned to three leading causes: (1) over-population, (2) poverty, and (3) excessive taxation. The Italians are among the most prolific of civilized peoples. Their birth-rate is nearly the highest in Europe and it has come to be by no means unusual for the births in a single year to outnumber the deaths by as much as 400,000. As a consequence of this, and of the further fact that so large a part of the country is ill-adapted for the production of foodstuffs, the peninsula is today badly overcrowded. The average density of popula-

ready to meet the ubiquitous tax-collector. Since 1860 the wealth of Italy has increased seventeen per cent, and in the same time taxes have multiplied thirty per cent.

In the absence of any very satisfactory efforts on the part of the government to

POPE PIUS X

Present head of the Roman Catholic Church. It is said that in the last election the Pope permitted many loyal Catholics to vote who had hitherto refrained from so doing, in order to counteract the growing socialist and labor influence.

relieve conditions, the Italian people have recently been working out a solution, hazardous and difficult to be sure, but yet proving to be unexpectedly effective. The cure for over-population, the way of escape from poverty and high taxes, has been found in emigration. It was only about twenty-five years ago that the Italians began to go out from their home land in any considerable numbers to seek employment and more adequate means of livelihood. Now they go by the hundreds of thousands every year, bent upon getting the daily bread they can no longer secure at home, and also in many cases upon supporting the family that has remained behind until the day of reunion again either in the old land or the new. Italian emigrants today fall naturally into two classes. The first is composed of men who go out, mostly from Venetia, to seek various kinds of work in neighboring countries—France, Austria, Germany, Switzerland, and Tunis. They undertake the hardest sorts of labor, at wages below the minimum of those received by local workingmen, and as a rule return with their earnings to spend the winter season at home. The second class of emigrants is much more important, being composed of the scores of thousands who forsake the old country more or less permanently to seek their fortunes in the distant countries of Brazil, the Argentine Republic, and the United States. In South America, where we already hear of the building of a greater Italy, there are at present probably not fewer that 4,000,000 Italians, and the accessions by immigration amount to upwards of 150,000 yearly. More Italian home-seekers enter these regions than from all other countries combined. Despite these high figures, however, the bulk of Italian emigration today is to the United States, partly because of the inertia by which the Italian emigrant is apt to follow more or less blindly in the course that his relatives and friends have marked out before, and partly because in the United States is to be found an abundance of just such labor as the Italian has been accustomed to perform in Europe. During the year ending June 30, 1903, the total number of Italians who passed into the country through our immigrant ports was 230,622 and for the same period ending June 30, 1904, the number was 193,296.

Ordinarily we speak of the Italians as if they were one people with identical customs and characteristics. As a matter of fact they are extremely heterogeneous. No two sections of the United States can offer such contrasts in character of population as do the north and the south of the

Italian peninsula. Piedmontese and Lombards are almost as unlike Neapolitans and Sicilians as if they bore an entirely different national name. This is true not alone in political and economic conditions but even more in the manners and customs of daily life. Such diversity, not often adequately realized by foreigners, renders an accurate general description of the Italian people well nigh impossible. As in our own country, however, the demarcation line between north and south is not sharply drawn. Different as the sections are, they merge imperceptibly into each other. Taking the two extremes, a recent Italian writer, Luigi Villari, brings out the contrast as follows:

The north is industrial, progressive, active and prosperous. The south is almost exclusively agricultural, and miserably poor. In the north political education is beginning to develop, and the keenest interest is evinced in social and political questions, while the south is apathetic and wanting in political instinct. The north has made a great advance in wealth, trade, and education, while the south is almost stationary. The ignorance of the south is proverbial. The proportion of illiterates among the recruits during the past year in Piedmont was 14.98 per cent, in Lombardy 18.42 per cent; in the province of Naples it was 51.37 per cent, in Sicily 55.04 per cent. In criminal statistics, too, the south enjoys an unenviable preëminence. Much more money has been spent on railways, schools, and public works in the north than in the south, where the need was much greater.

Taking the country as a whole, however, there are not a few ways in which real progress has been made since 1870. It may be doubted, in fact, whether any other nation of Europe within the same period has advanced so much. On the material side may be mentioned first the great improvement in means of intercommunication. Thirty years ago two-thirds of the kingdom were cut off from anything like direct railroad accommodations. Since then the mileage of Italian roads has been tripled—amounting at present to considerably over 10,000 miles. In 1870 the greater part of the peninsula had practically no highways, bridges, efficient postal service, or telegraph lines, but since then all of these agencies of communication, and hence of civilization, have also been multiplied by three. When the

POPE LEO XIII

Head of the Roman Catholic Church, 1878-1903. During his long rule Pope Leo maintained an attitude of hostility to the Italian government as "Prisoner of the Vatican."

modern kingdom was created there was practically no such thing as organized public instruction. Illiteracy throughout the peninsula averaged seventy-five per cent, and in the south it reached the almost incredible figure of ninety-nine per cent. Today there are more than 60,000 primary schools, with over 3,000,000 pupils, costing $15,000,000 annually. As to general commerce, there has been an increase in thirty years of ninety-five per cent—in the element of exportation one hundred and twenty per cent. The harbor of Genoa is fast becoming the rival of that of Marseilles for the commercial supremacy of the Mediterranean. Great advance has been made also in ordinary conditions of livelihood. Better hygienic conditions prevail than ever before and it is worthy of note that in recent years the death-rate in Rome has been considerably

lower than in Paris, London, Vienna, or St. Petersburg.

If one were to attempt to enumerate some of Italy's greatest needs today, he would certainly include, among other

VICTOR EMMANUEL III
King of Italy.

things, the following: (1) More education. As has just been said, enormous advance has been made in this direction during the past generation; but of course conditions cannot be adjudged anything like satisfactory as long as there still remain as much as forty per cent of the people who can neither read nor write. (2) More popular interest in political matters. In recent years the franchise has been extended to all males who are of age and who are able to read and write. This qualification excludes about 3,000,000 men who might otherwise be voters. This is in the interest of good government. But the discouraging feature of the matter is that of the 4,000,000 possible voters who remain not over half avail themselves of their political privileges and generally a national election can bring out not more than 1,300,000. From this it appears that a really small minority of citizens—even a minority of the enfranchised citizens—rule the state. And it is declared with evidently a good deal of reason that not half of the votes that are cast are ever free from the taint of corruption. (3) A more economical and considerate administration of the nation's affairs. The sting of taxation is wastefulness, and unfortunately it must be said that for the heavy imposts which they pay the Italians as a rule get very little in returns that are really valuable. The money goes largely to the maintenance of the army and navy, which, though not large as European armies and navies go, are far beyond the reasonable ability of the Italian people to support. The Italian government pursues the policy of trying to deal on equal terms with larger powers, especially Germany, Austria, and France, and feels itself under the necessity of keeping up a state of military preparedness which in truth brings little glory to itself and only imposes almost unbearable burdens on the peasant tax-payers.

Turning now to France we encounter a people having much in common with the Italians but occupying at present quite a different stage of national and social progress. Politically the most obvious contrast between France and Italy lies in the fact that while the latter has been a united nation for only three or four decades the former is one of the oldest nations in Europe. So thoroughly, however, has the French nation been reconstructed during the past century, it may in a sense be looked upon as almost a new nationality like Italy and Germany. The more important of these changes have been alluded to in previous chapters of this series; it remains for us simply to glance at a few of the problems which command attention among the French in our own time.

The most fundamental political problem

of France today relates to the stability of the present republic. It will be recalled that the political complexion of the French nation changed with surprising frequency between the outbreak of the Revolution and the end of the Franco-Prussian war. The settlement after the fall of Napoleon left the country a kingdom under the restored Bourbons and it continued so until the revolution of 1830; between 1830 and 1848 it was still a kingdom, but under the so-called Orleanist house; between 1848 and 1852 it had its second period of republican government; between 1852 and 1870 it was an empire under Napoleon III; and from 1870 to the present time it has been once more a republic.

With such a record as this behind it one might well be justified in a certain amount of skepticism regarding the permanence of the existing, or in fact any other particular, régime of government. At the same time it is fair to recognize that during the past thirty years the republic in France has passed through severe trials with unexpected success, and that so far as can be observed, republican government in the country was never more firmly established than it is today. Since 1893 the country has had no Monarchist party of any consequence. It is likewise significant that the Socialists who in France, as in Germany, Italy, and Belgium, are steadily increasing in numbers and influence, have apparently abandoned all recourse to revolutionary methods. They have in recent times become a true political party, content to work through the channels which are legitimately open to such an organization. There is in fact no appreciable number of people in France today who are disposed to revolution. Thousands are intensely dissatisfied with existing conditions, some for one reason and some for another, but they do not feel that these conditions warrant an appeal to violence. The conservatives look with horror upon the agitation and the successes of the Socialists, but the feeling between the two elements is by no means so bitter as that existing between the nobility and peasants in 1789

EMILE LOUBET
President of France.

and one cannot conceive of it leading to any such direful results. As things are now going, it seems likely that the Socialists will eventually win a good many points of their program, not, however, through a new series of revolutions, but a small part at a time, through the peaceful means of ordinary legislation.

Three-quarters of a century ago the French people found themselves in pretty much the same situation as that occupied by the Italians today. That is, they had not yet got more than a generation away from their great era of war and tumult and were only fairly settling themselves for the progress which in the near future they were to achieve. This fact perhaps comes out best of all in connection with

the matter of education. The early Revolutionists had planned a comprehensive system of public instruction but this had utterly failed to be realized and for some time after the restoration nothing whatever was done in this direction. In 1827 not one commune in three in France had even a single primary school and nearly a third of the population could neither read nor write. In the years just preceding the Revolution of 1848 some effort was made to better conditions, but it was not until after 1870 that much real progress was apparent. It was a curious outcome of the Franco-Prussian War that almost immediately after its close France adopted in large measure not only the German system of military organization but also the German style of schools. With this as a basis the French have worked out an exceedingly satisfactory educational system. In every commune today there is at least a primary school; if the commune is large there is a group of such schools in proportion, with accompanying arrangements for higher education. The state equips the schools, appoints the teachers, and regulates the course of study. Education is free, and, more than that, compulsory. Although this elaborate system has been only a short time in operation, illiteracy in France has been reduced to an insignificant figure.

If one were to go about through the rural parts of France today and carry with him a copy of Arthur Young's "Travels" he could hardly fail to be amazed at the contrast between the conditions of agricultural life today and those of the era preceding the Revolution. Instead of the poverty-stricken peasants, little better off than serfs, cultivating lands belonging to great nobles, he would find an equal number of small free-holders—peasant proprietors cultivating farms of their own and living as independent citizens of the state. The large number of such peasant proprietors in France today is one of the most striking facts in connection with the economic condition of the country. These small farmers are very generally prosperous and while they do not have the means of becoming wealthy are nevertheless able to live comfortably and to educate their children and give them a better start in life than they have themselves had. Half of the entire population live by farming and three-fourths of all the land in the country is continually under cultivation. There is just one disadvantage in connection with the small farms, and that is that they are not extensive enough to permit of the introduction of the best agricultural machinery, so that methods of tillage tend to be held in a rather primitive stage Through neighborhood associations, however, machinery owned by several farmers in common is frequently brought into use. It might be said further that the lack of increase of the French population today is due in no small measure to the limited extent of the average farm, combined with the higher standards of living which now prevail. The average French countryman desires to give his children every possible advantage; the meagerness of his farm limits his resources, and hence he is averse to the maintenance of a larger family.

Social and political problems in Spain are not sufficiently different from those in France and Italy to call for extended discussion. In general they relate to the position of the Catholic church, the amount and methods of taxation, the maintenance of the army, and the possibilities of republican government. Anarchism has few adherents in Spain and Socialism is by no means so strong as in France and Italy, though there is at present a good deal of agitation for shorter hours of labor and more pay for agricultural workingmen, which may lead to an indefinite enlargement of the Socialist party. Unlike Germany, France, Belgium, and Italy, Spain gives her laboring classes no real representation in the national legislature and they are thus left to work for their interests in such outside ways as seem promising to them. So

far, comparatively little has been done. There is a tendency in our own country, especially since the Cuban War, to exaggerate the stagnation and backwardness of the Spanish people as a whole; nevertheless the fact remains that among all Europeans they are making perhaps the least real progress toward industrial and social betterment as well as political self-government.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

I. Common Features of the Romance Countries.
  1. Geographical unity.
  2. Historical origins.
  3. Catholic religion.
  4. Social conditions and problems.

II. Italy today.
  1. The building of the Italian nation.
  2. Difficulty of fusing the Italian people.
  3. Causes of social and industrial backwardness.
    a. Over-population.
      1. High birth rate.
      2. Excessive numbers of workingmen.
    b. Poverty.
      1. Why Italy is a poor country.
      2. Scale of wages.
      3. Conditions of agriculture.
    c. Excessive taxation.
      1. Faulty system of tax assessment.
      2. Government monopolies.
      3. Bad conditions of living.
  4. Italian emigration.
    a. To other European countries.
    b. To America.
  5. Contrasted types of Italians.
  6. Lines of recent progress in Italy.
    a. Means of intercommunication.
    b. Education.
    c. Commerce.
  7. Italy's greatest needs.
    a. More education.
    b. More popular interest in politics.
    c. More economical administration.

III. France today.
  1. Reconstruction of the French nation.
  2. Problem of the stability of the republic.
    a. Apparent strength today.
    b. Attitude of the Socialists.
  3. Advance in education.
  4. Better conditions of rural life.

IV. Spain today.
  1. Problems similar to Italian and French.
  2. Laboring people unrepresented in the government.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Name the Romance countries of Europe. 2. Why are they so called? 3. What features have they in common? 4. Indicate the main steps in the building of modern Italy. 5. What are the three main causes of social backwardness in Italy today? 6. What can be said of the density of Italy's population? 7. What are the prevailing rates of wages in Italy? 8. With what adverse conditions do Italian farmers contend? 9. Characterize Italian taxation. 10. Describe the government monopolies in Italy. 11. What are the chief countries sought by Italian emigrants? Describe the nature of this emigration. 12. Contrast the northern and southern Italians. 13. What are the main lines of Italian progress in recent times? 14. Enumerate some great needs of Italy today. 15. Why has the stability of the French republic been doubted? 16. What is the status of this question today? 17. What is the present spirit of the French Socialists? 18. Describe the recent progress of the French in education. 19. Contrast the condition of the French peasantry today with that prevailing before the Revolution. 20. What are some of the problems of modern Spain?

SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. In what poem did Mrs. Browning express her interest in the cause of Italian freedom? 2. Who was Metterinch and how could he control Italy? 3. What great sacrifice did Victor Emmanuel make to secure the independence of Italy? 4. What famous Italian poet priest fell in the struggle for freedom? 5. Why have loyal Catholics refused to vote in Italy? 6. What is the political status of the Pope in Italy today?

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Weimar, the Athens of Germany

By Robert Waller Deering

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I HAVE lived here fifty years," said Goethe to his secretary, "and where have I not been? Yet I was always glad to return to Weimar." This is strong testimony to the charm of the place, yet few Americans ever go there. Though regrettable, this neglect is easy to explain. The quiet, listless little town makes no appeal to the globe-trotter; it is not famous in song or story, in art or architecture; it is not the seat of empire, nor the source of authority, nor yet a great city or center of modern life; it has no great boulevards, palaces, theaters, churches, universities, arts or industries; no famous dressmakers, no fashionable "season," no waters of healing; no dungeon nor chamber of horrors, and not even a beer, sausage, or gingerbread to bear its name. It does not invite the historian, for here are no ancient monuments, no relics of a vanished race or civilization, no memories of struggle or achievement in war or diplomacy. It has not even the charm of departed *medieval* glory—no vine-clad ruins, no majestic cathedral, no quaint or curious costumes or customs. But, while Weimar offers none of "all these things for which the gentiles seek," it has a charm and interest all its own. It is now a quiet, even sleepy, little town, but it was once a great capital in the world of letters, a center of culture, the home of Goethe, the home of the Muses, the "Athens of Germany."

The little duodecimo Duchy of Saxe-Weimar is too small to need much space on the map, but it is sacred soil, hallowed by memories of great men who are none the less great because they were heroes of peace, not of war. Weimar, the capital, is a town of 28,000 people not far from the Saxon border, sixty miles southwest of Leipzig. A few miles to the southeast is Jena, the field of one of Napoleon's great battles (Oct. 14, 1806), the seat of the illustrious university where Schiller, Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel were professors, a charming old town, famous for its student duels and for its memories of Luther, Goethe, the Humboldts, Schlegels, and other intellectual leaders of Germany.

This is the seventh of a series of nine articles entitled "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany." The complete list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

The Belgium of Charles the Bold and Philip II, by Clare de Graffenried (September).
Twentieth Century Belgium, by Clare de Graffenried (October).
Hanover, Hildesheim, Brunswick, by Clara M. Stearns (November).
Munich: The City on the Isar, by N. Hudson Moore (December).
Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck, by Wolf von Schierbrand (January).
Town and Country Byways, by Clara M. Stearns (February).
Weimar, The Athens of Germany, by Prof. Robert W. Deering (March).
Berlin I, by Professor Otto Heller (April).
Berlin II, by Professor Otto Heller (May).

To the west lies Eisenach, nestled under the fine old castle of the Wartburg; the birthplace of Bach, the early home of Luther, his refuge after the Diet of Worms, the place where he translated the Bible, threw his inkstand at the devil, and rocked the cradle of the Reformation; the seat also of Landgrave Hermann, the art-loving patron of the great Minnesingers, and the scene of Wagner's grand opera, Tannhäuser. To the southwest stretch away the dark, wooded hills of the Thuringian Forest, the very heart of Germany, for the lover of nature one of the most picturesque regions in Europe.

Weimar itself lies on the banks of the Ilm, a lazy little stream which does manage to overflow its banks in spring, but at other times is satisfied to reflect the trees, provide navigation for the ducks, and meander through a charming little valley. The town is said to date from the tenth century, though its founders are unknown; only one of its dukes, Bernhard, ally of Gustavus Adolphus and victor at Lützen, seems to have found any great place in history. Tradition says the name means "wine-market" and connects the town with the grape culture of the district. Our special interest in the place begins with the Grand Duchess Amalie, the gifted niece of Frederick the Great, and the noble patron of art and letters, who entered Weimar as a bride in March, 1756. All Germany has laid her homage at the feet of this great woman; not even Queen Luise of Prussia has a higher place in the hearts of her people than she. Small of stature, not blessed with beauty, ill-treated at her home, she was married off at sixteen "as princesses are married," and found herself at nineteen the widowed mother of two sons, confronted with the task of ruling her people and rearing her boys to take their places at the head of the government. Her sound sense and cheerful spirit are all that saved her at a time when the Seven Years' War was adding so much to her grief and her responsibilities. Her capital was a dreary little place of 6,000 souls, her standing army numbered six hundred infantry and fifty hussars; yet she steered her ship of state clear of danger and made Weimar one of the proudest names in Germany. The Weimar of her day was a country

ANNA AMALIE

Grand Duchess of Saxe-Weimar, the patron of art and letters.

village whose streets were innocent of light and pavements and guilty of many pigs and mud-holes, so cut off from the world that mails came only twice a week; yet it is doubtful whether, in all history, so many men of surpassing literary genius were ever gathered together in any other place at any one time. Her generous patronage of *German* letters is all the more remarkable when we remember her close kinship with the great Frederick, who had called his palace Sans Souci, had made Voltaire his secretary, despised the German language and literature, and did all he could to Frenchify Prussia.

In 1772 Amalie summoned the poet Wieland to Weimar as the tutor of her son, Karl August. He was the favorite popular poet, the accomplished translator of Shakespeare, the first German writer of

pleasing, flexible prose. Accepting the call he became the first of that brilliant group which made the name and fame of the town. Three years later came Goethe,

KARL AUGUST

Grand-Duke of Saxe-Weimar, who befriended Goethe.

the young author of "Götz" and "Werther," destined to become Karl August's prime minister, the greatest of all German poets, and one of the world's greatest thinkers and teachers. Wieland said of him that if anything could ever be made of Weimar, Goethe's presence would do it, but he little dreamed that this same Goethe would one day take his place beside Homer and Dante and Shakespeare, as one of the four greatest poets the world has ever known, and stand alone as the most universal intellectual genius in all history. Others soon followed: Einsiedel, the poet, musician, and actor; Seckendorf, poet and composer; Bode, the translator of Cervantes and Smollett; Musaeus, the fabulist; Knebel, the classicist; Corona Schröter, the brilliant and beautiful actress and singer; Herder, the poet, philosopher, and theologian, the father of German folk-song, and one of the six greatest names in German literature; and finally came Schiller, next to Goethe the greatest poetic genius Germany ever had, and even above Goethe the darling of the German heart. It seems strange that *four of the six greatest men in German letters should have lived and worked at the same time in this little town.* Add the members of her own family, her high officials, Frau von Stein, her famous lady-in-waiting, and the host of distinguished visitors who came from time to time—and Amalie had a court circle which any emperor might have envied her. And even after she and her brilliant court had passed away, Weimar found an afterglow of her glory in her memories of Liszt and Mendelssohn, Preller, Böcklin and Lenbach, Thackeray, Schopenhauer, and others, whose illustrious names will always be coupled with hers.

The first building that attracts the visitor on entering the town is the Museum. It is quite modern and has little to suggest old Weimar in her prime, yet one ought to see it, notwithstanding the miles

CHARLOTTE VON STEIN

of galleries already seen in the great cities. Besides pictures of the "old masters," which are always famous and often anything but pleasing, there are many modern ones, notably splendid frescoes by Schwind and Preller, that would adorn any gallery. However, apart from its own intrinsic value, the really important thing about it is that this little two-by-four Weimar, this lifeless country town, should have any gallery at all! Where is the American city of ten times its size and wealth that has any such evidence of the love of art as this?

Crossing the pretty little park in front of the Museum, we enter the old town and come upon relics of her glorious past. The quaint little Jakobskirchhof is the last resting place of many of Weimar's dead notables. We pass through wondering at the queer old monuments, knowing little and caring less about the names we read. Two of them, however, are familiar: Lucas Cranach, the Elder, the great religious painter of the Reformation, and Christiane Vulpius, the woman whom Goethe loved and finally made his wife.

STADTKIRCHE (HERDER'S CHURCH), WEIMAR

A little farther on, near the center of the town, stands the little church of St. Peter and St. Paul, in which pious Weimar has worshiped for over four hundred years. It was here that Herder, the poet and philosopher, was court preacher for a generation. He owed the appointment and his home in the parsonage which stands behind the church, to Goethe, who, as a youth of twenty-one and while still a student in Strassburg, had met and greatly admired him. As the older and riper man he had exerted a most helpful influence over Goethe, guiding his wayward genius, teaching him to appreciate the national quality of poetry and the highest standards of the art. The service was now repaid by the call, which Goethe secured from the Duke, to this important post. Herder's grave is in the church, under a simple slab which bears his motto: "Light, Love, Life." Nearby is the tomb of Weimar's famous duke, Bernhard, the distinguished Protestant leader in the Thirty Years' War. Among these illustrious dead, and indeed the best beloved of them all, lies the Duchess Amalie, the patron saint of the town, the good genius to

THE GRAND DUCAL CASTLE AT WEIMAR

whom Weimar owes her greatness. The little church contains at least one great picture, the altar piece, which is one of the elder Cranach's largest and finest paintings; it is a Crucifixion, interesting not only for its artistic value, but also for its contemporary portraits of Luther, Melanchthon, and other great reformers.

A narrow little street brings us to the Gothic Town Hall and to the old house opposite, which was once the home of the Cranachs, the painters, and which still shows their device, the winged serpent with the crown. Here, too, stands the house from whose windows the notorious Tetzel precipitated the Reformation by proclaiming his sale of indulgences, and there are the windows from which the fiery Luther thundered against him and them and the whole papal system.

The life of old Weimar centered in the court, and the palace is still the most imposing building in the town. Built around three sides of a square, it remains much the same as it was when Goethe erected it on the site of the one which burned down just before his arrival. The later dukes have dedicated a series of rooms to the memory of Goethe, Schiller, Herder, and Wieland, and adorned the walls with splendid frescoes of scenes from the lives and works of these great poets. Mary Stuart, Wallenstein, Wilhelm Tell, Tasso, Faust, Hermann and Dorothea, Oberon, and others look out upon us as we pass, and we are almost overawed by the thought that these great works were written in Weimar and under the shadow of this palace. The extensive private apartments of the Grand Duke and Duchess are accessible only during the absence of the court—which will not be so often now that Duke Wilhelm Ernst has taken a wife and become more domestic than formerly. That is unfortunate for the visitor, as he would enjoy the pictures by Perugino, Ribera, and Leonardo's pupils, which are here.

The Ducal Library just across the fine old square appeals strongly to students and literary people, especially those interested in German classics. We marvel at its size when we remember the size of the town. If it were divided out among the people, every man, woman, and child would receive nearly one thousand volumes! What American city can boast such a collection? Among its treasures are two maps of America, drawn in 1527 and 1529 on great sheets of parchment. Thoughts of the contrast between *then* and *now* overwhelm us as we study them. The great nation we have wrought out of the wilderness since Goethe went to Weimar is surely enough to comfort us for our small libraries. Interesting statues and portraits of famous men and women adorn the rooms; chief among them is Trippel's exquisite marble bust of Goethe, said to be the finest head in existence and showing well the remarkable beauty of his Apollo features. The best bust of Schiller, the one by Dannecker, is also here; the artist tried, he tells us, to "make Schiller live again," and he has almost succeeded, though he used only cold marble.

Just beyond the Library, next to the little Greek church, built in honor of the Grand Duchess Maria Paulowna, who was a Russian princess, is the spot dearest of all to Goethe's heart, the home of Charlotte von Stein, the brilliant court lady, the gifted, "perilously fascinating" woman of the world whom he loved longer and more devotedly than any other. Even before they met, a friend's description of her had cost him "three sleepless nights" and after that, for many years, he paid devoted court to her, poured out his heart in his letters, and glorified her in his poetry. It has been said that no woman, not even Petrarca's Laura nor Dante's Beatrice, was ever so honored in song as she. But she was seven years his senior, was already a wife and the mother of seven children, and, though she may have loved her children little and her husband less, she could not return his affection as he desired. She was always mistress of herself, yet the passionate worship of Germany's greatest poet, who was also Karl August's closest friend and the handsomest man in Europe, pleased her so well that she managed to keep him at her feet for ten long years. Almost every day brought her a letter or book, his finest, freshest flowers, fruit

TYPICAL STREET, WEIMAR

from his orchard, asparagus from his garden, or some other token from the persistent lover. He read to her, showed her the first drafts of every poem or

JOHANN WOLFGANG VON GOETHE

scene that he wrote, and made her in all things his trusted friend and confidante. Schiller marvels that "she has more than one thousand letters from Goethe, and even from Italy" (whither he had fled to escape the fascination of her presence) "he writes to her every week." His letters are preserved and all may read them; hers were returned upon her demand and shrewdly destroyed; we may never know the whole truth, yet this will always remain one of the most interesting love-affairs in history.

Ten minutes walk along the shady drives of the park that Goethe laid out brings us to his garden-house, where for seven years he lived and worked and dreamed, now exulting, now despairing over his love for the coquettish Charlotte. House, garden, trees, flowers, everything around speaks of her; the very atmosphere of the place is charged with her memory. The house is also a monument of Karl August's regard, for he most unceremoniously took it away from its former owner and gave it to Goethe. "But me no buts," he replied to the objections raised, "Goethe wants it, and we must give it to him or we shall not keep him." Here was beauty of forest, field, and stream to charm him; here was silence, broken only by the church bells, to soothe him; here was refuge from court festivities and rest from the cares of state; here Karl August came to talk, sometimes half the night, and then to throw himself on a sofa and sleep instead of going home; here Duke and Duchess came, often unexpectedly, to dine and enjoy themselves, in spite of the fact that sometimes the larder offered only "beer, soup and cold meat." If there was ever an example of plain living and high thinking, it was here.

On the way back a noble avenue of fine old trees carries us past the home of the great composer, Liszt, a house full of interest to every musician on account of the many Liszt mementoes gathered there. Beyond the next corner is the house in which Wieland, the poet and novelist, lived for so many years and which, thanks to German appreciation of men of letters, has been carefully rebuilt and restored.

In the Schillerstrasse one is fairly thrilled by a little inscription over a doorway: "Here lived Schiller." The house was his home during his five years of residence in Weimar. It has been bought by the town and converted into a museum full of relics of the poet's last years. On the ground floor, pictures, casts, and bric-a-brac are offered for sale; on the floor above, Schiller's rooms remain much as he left them; desk, furniture, pictures

are in their old places, his guitar still lies on the piano, the green arsenic paper, whose poisonous dust is thought to have hastened the destruction of his consumptive lungs, is still on the walls of his bedroom. The old care-taker says that even yet it makes her dizzy to stay there long. There is the desk at which he worked, with its yellow quill pens and its drawer in which he kept the rotting apples whose odor he thought he needed; there the little, hard bed in which he died. But the mind dwells not on these things; we heed not the bare floors, the low ceiling, the scanty, plain, almost primitive furniture, the general absence of comfort and ornament; we think rather of the great man who lived here and the mighty work

SCHILLER
The bust by Dannecker.

he did here. Before the inner eye there rises the image of Schiller, as he lights his lamp at midnight, after a day of reading and an evening at the theater with Goethe, and sits down at that desk to write. Alone with his great thoughts, with strong coffee or wine at hand to

GOETHE
The bust by Trippel.

stimulate his failing strength, he sits and coins his heart's blood into those matchless plays which the world still delights to see. Carlyle says: "Who can picture Schiller's feelings in this solitude without participating in some faint reflection of their grandeur? The toil-worn, but devoted soul, alone, offering up the troubled moments of existence upon the altar of Eternity! For here the splendor that gleamed across the spirit of a mortal, transient as any of us, was to be made perpetual; these images and thoughts were to pass into other ages and distant lands; to glow in human hearts, when the heart that conceived them had long been mouldered into common dust. To the lover of genius this bare little room has become a sacred shrine."

A square away is the Court Theater, of which Goethe and Schiller were joint directors and in which, night after night,

MUSEUM, WEIMAR

SCHILLERSTRASSE, WEIMAR
Schiller's house in left foreground.

THEATERPLATZ, WITH GOETHE-SCHILLER MONUMENT, WEIMAR

WHERE THE GOETHE AND SCHILLER ARCHIVES ARE KEPT

GOETHE'S GARDEN HOUSE, WEIMAR

HOUSE OF FRAU VON STEIN, WEIMAR

both were present to superintend the production of their own and others' plays. In front of it stands one of Weimar's chief art treasures, Rietschel's colossal bronze monument of Goethe and Schiller, whose greatest charm lies in its subtle expression of their noble friendship. With one hand on Schiller's shoulder, Goethe holds in the other the laurel crown of fame, which he generously offers to Schiller, whose hand also rests lightly upon it; yet neither seems to be mindful of it, for these great souls are full of quite other and higher things than poor mortal fame and rivalry

GOETHE'S HOUSE, WEIMAR

As the name of Shakespeare is written large all over Stratford, so the name of Goethe dominates Weimar. He came here as an impetuous youth of twenty-six, lived and worked here fifty-six years, and died here as a patriarch of almost eighty-three. And he has so left the stamp of his tremendous personality on all about, that it is of him that one thinks last in Weimar. His house on the Goethe Platz is the chief of the "sights" of the town and the Mecca of thousands of foreign pilgrims every year. This house was Goethe's home for nearly fifty years; after his death it remained in possession of the family and was last occupied by his grandsons, Walther and Wolfgang, two nervous old bachelors, who lived here in hermit seclusion, like dragons guarding a treasure. Upon their death in 1883 and 1885 it was left, with all it contained, to the Grand Duke and Duchess of Weimar in trust for the nation. The terms of the will have been accepted and carried out in the noblest way. Books, manuscripts, and papers have been moved to a fine, new building specially designed for their care and study; his letters, diaries, and even the smallest memoranda are all there, most carefully and systematically arranged in the handsome glass cases. These collections are precious indeed, for they are Goethe's legacy to the people. In 1889

GARDEN OF GOETHE'S HOUSE

the barons of Gleichen-Russwurm, Schiller's descendants, left his manuscripts to the nation, and they, too, are kept here. They lie here not at all as buried treasure, but are constantly used by scholars as a great storehouse of material for study of the life and work and personality of these two greatest sons of the Fatherland. The handsome library of the Goethe Society and the splendid Weimar edition of Goethe in a hundred and fifty volumes are among the first fruits of this consecrated labor. Recently the papers of Herder and Wieland and a dozen other later writers have been added. Who can know the end? This may be the beginning of the greatest collection of the kind on earth.

Goethe's other effects, together with relics in great number and of great value secured from the ducal family, relatives, and friends, have been gathered in the old home, so that it has become a great National Goethe Museum of surpassing interest. The government has repaired and restored the house with such care that it is now as nearly as possible what it was when Goethe died. From the wide hall, whose walls and niches are filled with pictures and statues, a broad, easy stair leads to the Reception Room, hung with portraits of his family, his noble patrons, and friends; the deep windows contain his antique gems, medals struck in his honor, his orders, rings, and other relics. The Juno Room, so called from its colossal cast of the majestic Juno Ludovisi, is fitted up with the original furniture, just as he left it. There is the big round table, with its long fringed cover and its long green sofa; there is the piano on which the youthful Mendelssohn played for him; there his favorite pictures and the portraits of himself and friends, with which the best artists of the day delighted to honor him. The Urbino Room, the art gallery of the house, contains, besides a score of fine pictures, a most interesting collection of his own drawings. And thus one goes from room to room; it is impossible to describe them in detail, for the catalogue of their treasures fills three stout volumes. Here are the steel engravings, wood-cuts, and drawings by the old masters; there marbles, bronzes, relics, and silhouettes; there Italian majolicas, old china, glass, terra-cottas, vases, carvings in wood, ivory, and wax, medals, coins, jewels, etc.,

SCHILLER'S HOUSE, WEIMAR

LISZT'S HOUSE, WEIMAR

which Goethe gathered during his long lifetime. The catalogue mentions 14,000 numbers in the natural science collections alone. One wanders at will among these relics, surprised by their number and value, and profoundly impressed by these manifold evidences of Goethe's interest in such varied fields. Surely he was the most versatile genius of modern times.

The top floor was occupied by his son's widow, Ottilie, and her children; her sitting-room is interesting as the meeting-place of her little club, to which many

GOETHE'S DEATH

GRAND DUCAL VAULT
Where Goethe and Schiller are buried

talented Englishmen, notably Thackeray, belonged. The author of "Vanity Fair" was then a youth of nineteen and met the great poet with becoming reverence, but his performances in Ottilie's club were anything but dignified; he kept them all in a gale of laughter by his sallies of wit and his funny sketches.

But the "holy of holies" in the house is Goethe's study, library, and bedroom. Affectionate reverence has left them just as they were at his death, seventy-two years ago. In striking contrast with the other rooms, they are most severely plain. When Scherer, the great Berlin professor, first entered Goethe's study and saw the pathetic simplicity of its furnishings, he could not control his feelings and burst into tears. To know why, you must see it yourself: the low ceiling, the two tiny windows, the unpolished tables, the hard, stiff chairs, the little dust-covered pincushion, and other relics faded by time and hallowed by death—and then remember that this was the birthplace of some of the greatest figures in literature. A glance through the open door shows the library to be much the same; no couch or easy chair, no evidence of comfort, just plain, rough shelves marked "Poetry," "History," "Philosophy," on yellow bits of paper, to show where the books belonged. The little door on the other side opens into Goethe's bedroom, the smallest in the house and hardly more than a big closet with a little window. A plain, narrow bed, with a bell-cord by it and an armchair beside it, a small table with tea-pot and cup and medicine, a little stand with basin and sponge—is all the furniture! In that chair, on March 22, 1832, Goethe died. Lewes says: "Ottilie sat by his side holding his hand and waiting in silent anguish for the end. As his speech became incoherent, his last audible words were: 'More Light!' The final darkness grew apace, and he whose eternal longing had been for more light gave a parting cry for it as he was passing under the shadow of death."

If there be any spot in Weimar more sacred than this, it is the Grand Ducal Vault where Goethe is buried. It stands by a small, but richly decorated, chapel, and has been the last resting place of Weimar royalty for more than two centuries. In the crypt of the vault, in a casket of plain but solid oak, which is encased in metal, in keeping with the simple dignity of his life, Goethe lies at rest; around him are the dead lords of Weimar, by his side sleeps Schiller, his brother poet and closest friend; and all about is Silence, majestic, deep,

GOETHE'S STUDY

SCHILLER'S DEATH CHAMBER

and solemn silence; the mighty presence of the mighty dead inspires to reverent thought, not speech. The sexton may touch your arm and point out some inscription, but he will not disturb your meditation. Around and upon the caskets are piled great wreaths of laurel and of palm, sent by the great ones of the earth in token of their homage; higher yet is the tribute paid them in the deep veneration of their people, but grandest of all is the mighty monument they reared themselves—in the example of their noble lives, in the matchless art of their immortal works.

We Americans are generally in a hurry, abroad as well as at home, and, unfortunately, it takes *time* to see Weimar; time to linger in those homes and haunts of genius, to stroll in the sweet autumn sunshine along these "poet's walks" in the park, to idle along the banks of the lazy Ilm, to sit and read and think and dream, to listen to the tales of some gray-head who treasures the memories of those grand old days as his most precious inheritance. A day or two will suffice for the "sights," but it takes longer to enter into the spirit of the place. Only he really *sees* Weimar who takes the time to go back in heart and thought to the life of a hundred years ago, to wait till those heroic forms cease to be mere shadows, and to gather impressions that will last him a lifetime.

PRONUNCIATION

Amalie—ah-*mahl*-yeh.
Bach—bahkh.
Bernhard—*bearn*-hardt.
Böcklin—böck-*leen*.*
Cranach—*krah*-nahkh.
Einsiedel—*ine*-zee-del.
Eisenach—*i*-zen-ahkh.
Ernst—airnst.
Faust—fowst.
Gleichen-Russwurm—*gli*-khen *roos*-voorm.
Goethe—*gō*-teh.*
Götz—göts.*
Hermann—*hair*-mahn.
Herder—*hair*-der.

*To pronounce ö, hold the lips as in pronouncing o and endeavor to say the ay of day. The nearest English parallel is the sound of ea in heard

†To pronounce ü, hold the lips as in pronouncing oo and endeavor to say ee.

Jena—*yay*-nah.
Leipzig—*lipe*-tsikh.
Lenbach—*len*-bahkh.
Lützen—*lüt*-sen.†
Musaeus—mü-*zay*-us.
Perugino—peh-roo-*jee*-no.
Ribera—ree-*bay*-rah.
Rietschl—*reet*-shell.
Schlegel—*shlay*-gel.
sans souci—sahn soo-see.
Saxe-Weimar—zaxeh-*vi*-mahr.
Schröter—*shrö*-ter.*
Schwind—shvindt.
Strassburg—*strass*-boorg.
Tannhauser—*tahn*-hoy-zer.
Thuringian—thu-*rin*-je-ahn.
Urbino—oor-*bee*-no.
Wagner—*vahg*-ner.
Walther—*vahl*-ter.
Wartburg—*vahrt*-boorg.
Weimar—*vi*-mahr.
Werther—*vair*-ter.
Wieland—*wee*-lant.
Wilhelm Tell—*vil*-helm tell.
Wolfgang—*volf*-gahng.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What attractions are conspicuously absent from Weimar? 2. Describe the region round about Weimar. 3. Who was the Grand Duchess Amalie? 4. What was the condition of Weimar in 1759? 5. Who was Wieland and what brought him to Weimar? 6 What other distinguished Germans followed him? 7. What brilliant names were associated with Weimar in later years? 8. Why is Weimar's Museum of importance? 9. What two celebrated names lend interest to the Jacobskirchof? 10. What associations has the church of St. Peter and St. Paul? 11. What critical events in the Reformation took place at Weimar? 12. Describe the ducal palace. 13. What are some of the treasures of the ducal library? 14. Who was Charlotte von Stein, and what was her influence over Goethe? 15. Describe Goethe's garden house. 16. How has Weimar shown its reverence for Schiller? 17. Describe the Goethe house and the nature of its treasures.

SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What were the circumstances of the battle of Jena? 2. Who were the Minnesingers? 3. What struggle took place at Lützen and when? 4. What was the Seven Years' War? 5. Who were Fichte and Hegel? 6. Who was Schopenhauer?

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Schubert and His Music

By Thomas Whitney Surette

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IN his article on Mozart in the December CHAUTAUQUAN, the author took occasion to point out a certain analogy between Mozart and Schubert as regards the spontaneous quality of their music and particularly as to the absence in each composer of those intellectual gifts which we naturally expect in great creative minds. Both Mozart and Schubert impress us, when we study them deeply, as passive mediums through which music speaks. The explanation of this lies in their intensely artistic natures: each of them was primarily an artist, by which is meant that their artistic sensibilities were very highly developed, and their artistic expression did not depend on knowledge or even on experience.

This natural facility of expression, and spontaneous creative faculty appears now and then in all departments of mental activity. Some of my readers doubtless have known persons in the ordinary walks of life who have possessed it to a greater or less extent. Such minds arrive by intuition at conclusions and results that are not to be accounted for by either their knowledge or their experience. Among great men of affairs we may cite Napoleon, who, prior to his early successes in France, and later against the Austrians in his first campaign, had no long experience nor extraordinary military education by which we may account for his remarkable successes.

Carlyle, in * "The French Revolution," writes of him:

> Some, what is more to the purpose, bethink them of the Citizen Buonaparte, unemployed artillery-officer, who took Toulon. A man of head, a man of action. Barros is named commandant's clerk; this young artillery officer is named commandant. . . . And now, a man of head being at the center of it, the whole matter gets vital. . . . In old Broglie's time, . . . this Whiff of Grapeshot was promised; but it could not be given then; could not have profited then. Now, however, the time is come for it, and the man; and behold, you have it; and the thing we specifically call the *French Revolution* is blown into space by it, and becomes a thing that was!—

Napoleon, it should be noted in passing, was, at this time, but twenty-six years old.

In America, Lincoln stands as the preeminent example of a man endowed by nature with faculties which expressed themselves, without a long process of education, in acts of the highest wisdom.

*Book XX, chapters VII and VIII.

This is the seventh of a series of nine articles on "German Master Musicians." A partial list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Bach (September), by William Armstrong. Handel (October), Haydn (November), Mozart (December), Beethoven I (January), Beethoven II (February), Schubert (March), Schumann (April), Wagner (May), by Thomas Whitney Surette.

FRANZ PETER SCHUBERT
Jan. 31, 1797—Nov. 19, 1828.

No comparison is of course intended here between men of Napoleon's type and Schubert, save in this one quality of spontaneous expression through widely contrasted mediums. In each we find the results of activities entirely out of proportion to the preparation they went through.

The record of Schubert's short life may be found by reference to the books named in the list at the close of this article. There is space here only to record that his family was an unimportant one in Vienna, his father being an obscure schoolteacher. Franz Schubert taught primary subjects for a time in his father's school, and after that had no means of support save what little money came in from the few compositions he was able to sell to unwilling publishers. His friends at the "Stadtconvict," the school connected with the Imperial Chapel, encouraged him to compose, however, and his first notable compositions date from that period, 1808-1813.

The record of his compositions is a long one; it may be found in Grove's Dictionary under "Schubert." It will be well here, as an introduction to the study of certain of his works to consider briefly the essence of Schubert's genius.

First of all it must be noted that he

was not a thinker like Beethoven. He does not seem to have been a factor in the events of his time. Beethoven stands out from the mass of men not only as a composer but as a man. He felt the pulse of his time, and was a champion of the rights of the individual, while Schubert seems to have had no thought of such things but was content with his friends and his art. His music has none of the spirit of challenge, of revolt, that is often to be found in Beethoven's. To find an analogy for the latter we have to look among reformers, and men of weight in the world of affairs, or among the leaders of the intellectual world, while Schubert's analogue is Keats or Shelley. He is, like these poets, a singer: his genius finds highest expression not through the intricacies of great works where the intelligence holds sway, so much as through music whose beauty and sincerity convince without argument. He is, in other words, an artist rather than a thinker. His first music teacher, Michael Holzer, the parish choirmaster, said of him, when he was but eight years old, "Whenever I wished to teach him anything new, I found that he had already mastered it." A short time later his harmony teacher, Ruczizka, said, "He has learned everything, and God has been his teacher."

Another evidence of the unpremeditated quality of Schubert's compositions is to be found in the magnitude of the list of his works. Dying at thirty-one he had composed seventeen dramatic works, six masses, as well as a large number of secular choral works, over five hundred songs, ten symphonies, more than a score of pieces of chamber music, and over twenty piano sonatas, besides many separate smaller pieces. To have written all these in his short life Schubert must have thrown off many of them almost impromptu.

But in spite of his isolation, Schubert takes a step forward in the general development of music, and, in one of its phases, his contribution is of the highest importance. We owe to him the creation of a perfect type that had been gradually developing for generations. In the Song, Schubert is supreme.

The evolution of the type may be traced back to the folk-songs of the olden time, in whic were expresed the feelings of simple people. These early songs were *naive* in that they merely attempted to supply spontaneous music for familiar verses without making the music consciously appropriate or descriptive. From these beginnings the history of song may be traced through the works of the great composers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Haydn and Mozart wrote many songs that are significant of this development; two of them are selected here for purposes of illustration. The best known song of Haydn is called, * "My Mother bids me bind my hair;" the words are as follows:

My mother bids me bind my hair
With bands of rosy hue;
Tie up my sleeves with ribbons rare,
And lace my bodice blue.
For why, she cries, sit still and weep,
While others dance and play.
Alas! I scarce can go or creep,
While Lubin is away.

'Tis sad to think the days are gone
When those we love are near,
I sit upon a mossy stone
And sigh when none can hear;
And while I spin my waxen thread,
And sing my simple lay,
The village seems asleep or dead,
Now Lubin is away.

The first strain of this charming song is given below. The melody throughout is in that simple, ingenuous style so characteristic of Haydn, and the second verse, the words of which are touched with sadness, is set to the same music as the first. In short this does not present the marriage of words and music, but is, rather, a melody intent on its own purpose and merely metrically suited to the verses. It should be further noted that this song is strophic, *i. e.*, its music

*"My Mother bids me bind my hair," for high or low voices, with English words, may be had for 30 cents.

I

is verse-like in form, each phrase corresponding to a line of the poem. (See I.)

One of Mozart's best songs will serve as a further illustration of the development we are discussing. The words are Goethe's and, in translation, run as follows:

A violet in a meadow grew
And bent its head all wet with dew—
  It was a lovely flower.
There came a shepherd maiden by,
With lissom step and laughing eye,
  And sang full sweet her soft low song.

Ah! thought the violet, would I now
Were fairest bloom of all that grew
  Within Dame Nature's bower;
That yonder pretty maiden's eye
Might rest on me approvingly,
  And I might go with her along.

Ah! but she came, the maiden came,
And, heeding not that modest flame,
  Trod down the gentle flower;
It sunk and died, yet did rejoice
That it had heard her soft sweet voice
  And felt its soul-entrancing power.
  gentle violet,
  Thou wert a modest flower.

The student is urged to procure this song,*"The Violet"; three short excerpts are inserted here to illustrate the advance over the song of Haydn.

The first of these is from the beginning of the first verse. (See II.)

This gives the general style of Mozart's song, which, it will be observed, follows closely the versification of the poem: the second phrase (marked B), for example, does not exactly balance the first, but suits itself to the short line, "It was a lovely flower."

*"The Violet," with English words, may be had for 25 cents.

The third excerpt (C) comprises the passage to the words, "It sunk and died." Here the sense of the words is admirably carried out by the falling cadence in plaintive minor.

The general tendency, then, of song development was towards a more intimate union between words and music. The same process has taken place in opera, the essence of the Wagnerian style being a complete union between the dramatic situation as expressed in words, acting, stage setting, etc., and the music. This phase of musical development will be treated in the forthcoming article on "Wagner and His Music."

Let us now turn to a song of Schubert to observe what advance he made over his predecessors. We have selected a lyric song in order to make a definite comparison with the two songs already considered. Schubert's * "Du bist die Ruh" ("My Sweet Repose") is strophic, yet it makes a great advance over the songs of Haydn and Mozart. The English translation of the words is as follows:

Thou art sweet peace and tranquil rest
I long for thee to soothe my breast;
I dedicate, mid joys and sighs,
Thy dwelling in my heart and eyes.

Come, then, to me and close the door,
And never, never, leave me more;
Chase every pain from out this breast,
Calming this heart to joyful rest.

Let thy pure light my glance control;
With lustre bright, fill thou my soul.

The office of music as a medium of expression for poetry is to give a more subtle and, at the same time, more emotional presentment of the underlying meaning of the words. In the above verses there breathes a spirit of peace and tranquillity; no jarring emotion intrudes itself; all is happiness and contentment. These qualities Schubert has felt and expressed in his reposeful and flowing melody. He is not merely intent on writing a tune; he desires to find a medium for the quiescent emotions of the poem. Tranquillity characterizes the whole song, both in its melody and its accompaniment. The passage beginning "Let thy pure light" contains one of Schubert's characteristic changes of key by means of which the requisite richness of color is obtained in what might otherwise be a too monotonous treatment.

The student is strongly urged to procure other songs of Schubert; "Ihr Bild" ("Her Portrait"), and "Erlkönig" ("The Erl King") are specially recommended. "Ihr Bild" is one of Schubert's greatest songs in the dramatic and poignant expression of emotion outside the confines of lyric melody, while the * "Erlkönig" is epoch-making in its fearless †dissonances and its realism.

Let us now turn to the study of Schubert's ‡ "Unfinished" Symphony, No. 8. This was not Schubert's last work; it was written six years before he died, and the reasons for his leaving it incomplete are not known. Only two movements exist, though there are sketches for a Scherzo. These two movements are marked "Allegro Moderato" and "Andante con moto," and constitute the first movement and the "slow" movement, so called. The first movement is in § "Sonata Form," and begins with a passage for the basses and 'cellos that sets the tone of the whole work in a tragic key.

This is succeeded ¶(9) by a phrase for the first and second violins accompanied

*"Du bist die Ruh" may be had for high or low voice for 25 cents.

*The opening of the "Erlkönig" may be compared with the beginning of the Prelude to the first act of Wagner's "Die Walkure." The same idea runs through both, arising from the similarity in the underlying situation, namely, a forest storm.

†The passage at the words "Oh father! My father! thy child closer clasp" sounded so dissonant to Schubert's friends that he was besought to change it. The poignancy of the words here entirely justified the musical treatment.

‡The "Unfinished Symphony" may be had for piano, four hands, for 30 cents; piano, two hands, 30 cents; miniature full score, 70 cents.

§See the November CHAUTAUQUAN, page 249.

¶Numbers in parentheses always refer to the consecutive measures of the movement. Students should number their music to correspond.

by a *pizzicato phrase in the basses which is similar in rhythm to a portion of the succeeding melody in the oboes and clarinets (22). This melody occupies the chief place in the statement of themes and continues until (38), accompanied the while by the figure in the violins that began at (9). A brief transition (34-44) leads to the second theme, one of Schubert's most charming melodies. This tune illustrates the spontaneous quality of Schubert's music; it is as unconsciously beautiful as a rose, not a thing of deep feeling, not a premeditated and thought-out idea; but a thing of beauty, and a joy forever. Its announcement is interrupted by a sudden pause (62) immediately followed by a passage of dramatic intensity that finally (71-2) dies away, and gives place to a further statement of Theme II (73). Students who possess the full score of this work will be interested to follow out the various phases the lovely melody goes through in what follows. The first measure of the theme (44) is tossed about between the different stringed instruments, finally (77) with considerable vigor, the bassoons joining in the discussion. A little later (94) this short phrase is made to overlap in the first and second violins, and then (99-100) in the flutes and oboes. The exposition section finally closes with a descending pizzicato passage in the strings, and the usual double bar is reached. The "Free Fantasia," beginning at (111) soon turns to the initial phrase of the Symphony, which assumes a new form (123-126) answered in †imitation (125-128 by the violas. This is carried out at considerable length alternating with passages suggestive of Theme II [see flute and clarinet parts (151-154), (159-162) etc.], until finally the same phrase appears in the brass instruments with great vigor accompanied by a rapidly moving accompaniment in the strings (177). All through this "Free Fantasia" there is a close adherence to the theme of the basses at (1), the violin part at (188-9) being derived from the phrase in the basses at (4-5), and the great climax at (195) growing directly out of the initial bass phrase of the movement. Finally with a reminiscence of the clarinet theme at (13), and on a long sustained F sharp (208-218) the conclusion of the "Free Fantasia" is reached. Before we leave it let us realize that it has been cohesive and to the point; that, whatever limitations Schubert may have had as a reasoner—and such limitations would show themselves in this portion of the symphony—this discussion or development of his themes has been admirably suited to the themes themselves, and is calculated to arouse the admiration of the most critical. The third part of the movement corresponds quite closely to the first, not introducing—as Beethoven did in his fifth symphony—new versions of his themes.

The Andante to the Unfinished Symphony is equally characteristic. It begins with a pizzicato scale descending in the basses as if to continue the mood of the first movement. The chief melody enters (3) immediately, and receives a changing treatment of harmony (18), finally developing into a broad phrase with moving bass (33) that is finally succeeded (45-58) by a tender reminiscence of the opening measures. Then, after a solo phrase from the first violin (60), the throbbing accompaniment to the second theme enters. This *syncopated background of chords is characteristic of the new music, and has since become one of the commonest methods of accompanying melodies; the recurrence of the accompaniment notes immediately after, instead of simultaneously with, the notes of the melody, takes away the stiffness of the effect

*_Pizzicato_ means that the strings are to be picked; _arco_ that the bow is to be resumed.

†Strictly speaking in "Canon." See Grove's Dictionary, Vol. I "Canon."

*_Syncopation:_ "the binding together of two notes (or chords) so that the accent intended for the second seems to fall on the first."

and brings the melody into prominence.

The second theme (66), in the clarinets, is of extraordinary effect without being, in itself, beautiful. Unlike the second theme of the first movement it is not a lovely melody, but it has a poignancy, nevertheless, that the former tune did not possess. We shall refer at the close of this article to the question this theme causes to arise. An exquisite counter melody enters (85) in the 'cellos. At the close of this part there begins (103) a dramatic version of a *motif* from Theme II [(103) being taken from (66)] accompanied by a rapid figure in the second violins, violas and oboes. Again Theme II enters (114) in canon and then the initial theme is brought back once more as at the beginning of the movement. The second theme appears in due time (207), and the dramatic version of it is repeated. The Coda is of especial interest in that it affords us one of Schubert's characteristic modulations, the passage at (280-290) could have come only from his pen.

This work belongs in the realm of romance, and Schubert's total contribution to music is directly in line with the development of those romantic ideals that finally found more complete expression in Heine and Schumann. What those ideals were and how they affected the world of poetry and music must be considered in the next article. Enough here to point out that, after the impetus given to music by Beethoven—an impetus that took it out of the realm of conventional expression and led it over the border-land of romantic idealism—the men who followed him carried on the process of development in a somewhat new path: the school of romanticists arose, touching with the wand of fancy many humble things in life—feelings, events, ideas that had been before unexpressed. In other words the freeing of the individual brought about by the events of the revolutionary period resulted in dignifying the lives of all men, and there sprang up painters, composers, writers, who expressed the significance of humble things. The reign of the aristocracy, both political and intellectual, had been weakened. Every man felt that he, as an individual, had a place in the scheme of things; music had become more personal, more intimate. The themes of the Unfinished Symphony are less universal than those of the Fifth of Beethoven. In the second theme of the second movement of Schubert's great symphony there is an element of touching plaintiveness that is new to music; in the opening of the first movement there is a personal sorrow unlike the world-big tragedy in Beethoven. Everywhere in Schubert there is that intimate quality and his total message is one of tender, almost womanly pathos and beauty. His short, inconspicuous life passed like a breath; he left no mark on his own time, and the pathos of his short day might have found expression in that most pathetic of epitaphs engraved on Keats' tomb in the Protestant cemetery in Rome—

"Here lies one whose name was writ in water."

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What evidence of the new spirit in song writing do you observe in Schubert's songs? (This question may be answered by reference to any song of Schubert). 2. What evidence do you find in the accompaniment to Schubert's songs (such as "The Erl King," or "The Young Nun") of graphic portrayal of the meaning of the words? 3. What strains of Schubert (in any instrumental or vocal composition) can you point to as *Romantic?* (state reasons for your opinion). 4. What are the essential differences between the Fifth Symphony of Beethoven and Schubert's "Unfinished Symphony?"

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End of April Required Reading for Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, Pages 15 to 47.

Civic Lessons From Europe

Compulsory Insurance

By I. M. Rubinow

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IN an agricultural society such as existed in Europe before the nineteenth century, or in this country much later, the wide distribution of productive property among the vast majority of the people made the problem of providing for the future or for an exceptional emergency a comparatively simple matter. The farm could not be absolutely destroyed, a bad harvest might be followed by a good one, and in case of sudden sickness of the main worker, some temporary makeshift or other might be applied to; and when old age finally arrived, new muscles had grown in the next generation to do the work on the farm and to keep the wolf from the door. If our grandfathers did not feel the necessity of protecting themselves with life insurance policies, it was not because the enterprising and omnipresent insurance solicitor had forgotten to pay them a visit. There was no insurance system because economic conditions of that age did not demand any.

The enormous gains of the system of life insurance in this country bear eloquent testimony to the insecurity of modern industrial life. The rich business man of today may be a pauper tomorrow. And even if no misguided enterprises threaten him with a financial catastrophe, his sudden death may leave a helpless widow and orphans without any means of support.

How much more true is this of the wage earner, the mainstay of modern industrial society! The regularly employed workingman, with the comparatively high wages which American conditions afford, may lead a comfortable existence; still the sword of Damocles threateningly hangs over him and his dependents. A sudden sickness, an accident, which may or may not end fatally, destroys the very foundation of his well-being. When the wage earner does not work, he earns no wages, and he must of necessity swell the number of applicants for public charity. The prudent should save, one might say. Granted. But is he always in the position to save? And even if he is, will the rainy day wait until enough has been laid up to enable him to meet it?

Under pressure of economic necessity a system of mutual aid sprang up in the main industrial countries, whose function it was to render assistance to the destitute workingman and so help him tide over the critical moment. What private or public charity was forced to do for many centuries, the sick benefit societies *(Krankenkassen)* of Germany or the trade unions of England have tried to accomplish by coöperative effort. Yet this necessary work was done very unsatisfactorily indeed when about the year 1880 the German government came out with its project of compulsory insurance.

This is the seventh of a series of nine articles on "Civic Lessons from Europe." A partial list is as follows:

Street Decoration, by Milo Roy Maltbie (September).

La Maison du Peuple, a Belgian Coöperative Business, by Mary Rankin Cranston (October).

Forestry in Germany, by Raphael G. Zon (November).

Coöperative Industries, by Mary Rankin Cranston (December).

Public Playgrounds, by H. S. Curtis (January).

German Municipal Social Service, by Howard Woodhead (February).

Compulsory Insurance, by I. M. Rubinow (March).

Industrial Communities, by Patrick Geddes (April).

It is not necessary to go into a searching inquiry as to the motives which influenced Bismarck to undertake what has been frequently called a system of state socialism. It has been established with a sufficient degree of certainty, that Bismarck was more anxious to counteract the rising wave of socialism than to improve the condition of the working masses. Yet it is acknowledged that Bismarck's method of fighting the spread of socialism was through the improvement of the condition of the workingmen; and that the grand structure of compulsory state insurance of workingmen denoted such improvement, cannot at present be denied.

Insurance against sickness was the first, in point of time, to grow up in Germany. After several years of considerable discussion and agitation, a bill was introduced in the German parliament in 1881 and with many modifications finally became a law in 1883. Several important changes were subsequently made, and the law as it exists today dates from the 10th of June, 1892. The changes consisted mainly in the extension of its force over classes of wage earners omitted in the original law, until today domestic servants are the only large class of wage earners for whom sickness insurance is not compulsory, though they may avail themselves of its benefits.

The popularity of sick benefit funds among the German workingmen for many decades before a system of state insurance was thought of, has provided Germany with a type of institution capable of handling the technical aspects of the problem; the state has therefore been relieved from undertaking the actual work of insurance; its action is limited to compulsion, regulation, and control. Because of this compulsion almost each and every German workingman is insured against sickness, or rather the economic burdens of it, in some organization; be it a "local fund" to which all workingmen of a small locality belong, or a "factory fund" where all the employees of a great industrial establishment are insured, or again a "trade fund" uniting all workingmen of a certain trade in a great industrial center. These funds *(Kassen)* are managed partly by the employers, partly by the employees. The state then sees to it that whoever comes under the provisions of the law, should be insured, that the payment should be made, that no abuse be possible and that a certain minimum of assistance be granted by the fund; but many funds in the larger industrial centers grant a great deal more than the minimum required. Of the necessary premiums the workingman pays two-thirds and the employer contributes one-third. The legislator has evidently acknowledged that no matter how difficult it may be to establish the direct cause of each individual case of sickness, employment as such is an important factor in the causation of disease. The employer, *i. e.*, the business, must contribute to the expenses of the cure and care of the sick and their financial support, just as business is supposed to cover the expenses of fire insurance and wear and tear of the inanimate machine. The expenses of insurance to the worker are exceedingly small; they vary according to the organization and locality between 1½ per cent and 4 per cent of the workingman's wages and very rarely exceed 3 per cent; and with a rate of wages of 3 to 4 marks (60 to 80 cents) per day, the premium varies between 1 and 3.2 cents a day, or 6 and 20 cents a week, only two-thirds of which are paid by the employee, or rather by the employer for him.

Now let us see what the workingman gets for his "one cent a day." The benefits of the "sickness funds" include, as a minimum, (1) free medical and surgical treatment, as long as necessary, up to twenty-six weeks; medicines and any special treatment that may be found necessary, operations, obstetrical attendance, massage, electricity, baths, as well as medical apparatus, glasses, crutches, and even

artificial limbs in some Kassen; (2) financial assistance to the patient or his family, equal to 50 per cent of his wages at least, and in some Kassen as much as 75 per cent. Insured workingwomen are entitled, besides, to a subsidy in case of childbirth, so as to enable them to discontinue work both before and after the consummation of the act of maternity.* Burial money is also given by these institutions, equal to from twenty to forty times the daily wage of the deceased. While these benefits are obligatory and universal, the activity of the large "sickness funds" in the many industrial centers has been very much widened, and here we see the beneficent results of coöperative activity under the encouragement of the state or the society at large. Not only have the benefits been made much more liberal, but the advantages of free medical treatment have been extended over the wage worker's families; hospital treatment and even a prolonged sojourn in sanatoria and institutions for convalescents have been provided by some of the Kassen.

Consider for a moment what this simple legislative act—which took into cognizance all existing institutions for self-help, and simply extended and regulated their activity—what it meant for the laboring population of Germany. It did away with the necessity of degrading medical charity which introduces so much demoralization into the homes of the American wage worker.† The physician who treats the German worker free is paid by the Krankenkassen; all the benefits that are given to the sick are given because they are due to him, because it is his right to demand and receive them. When struck down with a serious illness, and unable to continue his regular work, the German workingman does not immediately fall into the atmosphere of condescension and pity, mingled with contempt. The material hygienic and economic results are still more palpable, than the psychologic ones. The fear of a large professional bill does not deter the German worker from receiving necessary medical advice and assistance; one case of illness with its enormous expenses and concomitant loss of income does not destroy forever the economic independence of a self-sustaining family. As the French investigator, Edouard Fuster has well said, "The German system of sickness insurance saves the German worker his health and the German nation its vital powers."

Bodily ailments are scourges of all humanity without consideration of class or creed, but modern industrial life has subjected the worker to a long list of accidents to limb and life, which are specifically his own. The enormous development of machinery and the utilization of mechanical power, the swiftness of transportation methods, the dizzy height of building operations, and above all the nervous tension and hurry of a strenuous life, all these causes have contributed to increase the frequency of accidents and injuries to an alarming degree. Here we have a sum total of effects whose causation by industry cannot be doubted. For a long time European legislation had been, and American legislation even now is, much more preoccupied with the interesting problem of placing the blame of each individual accident, than the economically important effort at minimizing the injurious effects of them all. The Anglo-Saxon system of individual responsibility for an accident has been a signal failure as far as the reimbursement of the victim has been concerned. A whole series of common law doctrines grew up to limit the chances of obtaining such reimbursement. The "fellow servant" doctrine denies the worker the right to recover dam-

*It is noteworthy that no distinction at all is made between cases of legitimate and illegitimate pregnancies.

†Charity is always demoralizing to the self-sustaining individual. Yet paid medical help is so expensive, that an appeal for medical charity has become a matter of course with the working population of large American cities. The effort to counteract this tendency, while void of any practical result, has accustomed our wage workers and their families to wholesale prevarications. Any dispensary physician will agree to the truth of this statement.

ages, if injured through carelessness of any co-employee. The doctrine of contributory negligence relieves the employer even in cases of acknowledged culpability, if it can be shown that the injured worker has also been somewhat negligent; thus the worker, who is only partly responsible, bears all the consequences and the employer, also partly responsible, bears none. The doctrine of assumed risk teaches that the workingman who has knowingly accepted dangerous employment shall stand all the consequences. And there are many others, no less far-reaching in their influence. The effect of all this is to make the cases of reimbursement of the poor wretches who have lost limb or health, and the widows and children, a very rare and problematic possibility. Nor does a system like this tend to promote the introduction of preventative measures.

The German system of accident insurance was a radical departure from this old method. Assistance to the sufferer is made *the* very important problem. It is also acknowledged that whether the individual worker be negligent or not (and some acts of carelessness are committed by every human being) the industry as a whole is responsible for the frequency of accidents, and that the industry, *i. e.*, the employers, should pay all the expenses connected with accident insurance. The first law establishing compulsory accident insurance was passed on June 6, 1884, approximately one year after the experiment of sickness insurance was made. At first it applied to industrial workers only; in 1886 the law was extended to cover those employed in forestry and agriculture, and in 1887 the building trades and seamen. The entire accident insurance legislation as it exists today is a result of complete revision and codification in 1900. Unions of employers in each important branch of industry were created and the funds made up by contributions from the individual employers, the amounts being levied by assessment according to the size of the enterprise, number of workers, and also frequency of accidents. The organization by industries was thought essential because of the great difference in frequency of accidents in various industries. On the other hand the system of assessments shifts upon the careless employer the burden of an excessive frequency of accidents in his establishment.

The benefits paid to the insured are quite liberal and thorough. The minor accidents which do not require attendance beyond the first thirteen weeks, are taken care of by the sick insurance funds. From the fourteenth week on, the injured receives medical attendance, medicines, etc., as long as necessary, and financial assistance as long as his disability lasts, even for the rest of his life, if the disability be permanent. The injured workman is entitled to two-thirds of his wages for total disability to engage in any gainful employment, and a proportionate amount of the two-thirds if his disability be only partial, the facts in the case and the degree of disability being decided by a medical board. In case of death of the injured person, whether it be the immediate result of the accident or not, the widow and orphans below fifteen years of age, each receive an annuity equal to 20 per cent of the earnings of the lost breadwinner; the maximum annuity is, however, limited to 60 per cent. The relatives in the ascending line are entitled to an annuity equal to 20 per cent of the wages and grandchildren have the same rights if they had been depending on the deceased for their support. In case of remarriage, the widow (but not the children) loses her right to the annuity, but receives the final payment of 60 per cent as a dowry. A special payment is also made to cover the funeral expenses in case of death, which equals one-sixteenth of the annual wages, but cannot be less than fifty marks ($12). There are numerous minor benefits as well as provisions to safeguard the interests of the

victims of the accident as well as those dependent upon him. Too much stress can not be laid upon the fact that the causation of the individual accident and the degree of carelessness of the injured are totally disregarded in deciding the amount of the annuity, except in so far as to exclude injuries wilfully and maliciously self-inflicted.

All these payments cannot recompense the injured workman for a lost limb, or ruined health, cannot console the widow and orphans for the loss of a dear life. But no human power has succeeded in accomplishing all that. What the system of accident insurance has succeeded in bringing about, is an avoidance of all costly and tedious litigation, which promised little and taxed the workingman much, and made him wait long even in those cases where the employer's gross neglect was perfectly self-evident. It established the principle that an industrial worker, who had spent his health and life in the production of goods socially useful, is entitled to a better fate than starvation and misery, if incapacitated while in performance of useful work—a principle universally admitted with regard to the soldier by the whole American people. It has given the German workingman a sense of security for the future which his American comrade, notwithstanding his higher rate of wages, certainly does not possess.

Sickness or accidents are the emergencies of a workingman's life, frequent, and to be expected, yet not inevitable and often temporary. They do not by far complete the list of all the vicissitudes of a wage-worker's existence. Without any special, definite, easily-to-be-noticed case of violence, the health and strength of the worker may be so reduced, as to make him unfit to obtain profitable employment. Such cases must necessarily grow with the general tendency of speeding up the processes of manufactures. Ten to twelve hours of continuous work at the high rate of tension which prevails in the modern factory, frequently produce that premature old age, which is a typical and distressing feature of modern civilization. Again, quite apart from any of these cases of invalidity and premature old age, there is for the workingman that inevitable prospect of an old age perhaps quite normal and physically unavoidable, during which a quest for a job would meet no encouragement.

Perhaps nothing is more distressing in the conditions of modern life, than the sight of an old and decrepit man forced to eke out his existence by the work of old shaky hands, by means of weakened, half-blind eyes. What becomes of all these men who get nothing to eat unless they work? What becomes of them when they are too old to work? They fill the hospitals, the poor- and work-houses, are often supported by their children, and some of course, "retire," *i. e.*, they live on the proceeds of their savings.

But how many can save? It seems to be the widely accepted theory in this country, that all who wish can save, and that, too, sufficiently to last them through their declining days. Our overseers of the poor, and chiefs of departments of charities and corrections may possibly hold a different opinion. A German official investigator, Professor Bielefeldt, states the case very succinctly when he says, that "wages as a rule, are about sufficient to satisfy the ordinary demands of every-day existence, and totally fail at the time of extraordinary disturbances of the working labor power of the bread-winner of a family." How much more true it is of cases of complete and permanent failure of labor power! The system of invalid and old age insurance naturally came as a fitting sequel to insurance against sickness and accidents. The German law making such insurance compulsory was promulgated in June of 1889, and revised in 1899, in which form it is in force at present. In point of latitude the law is more sweeping than the sick insurance law, and it includes besides

wage workers, also independent tradesmen and even petty employers of labor.

At the time when the plans for old age insurance were elaborated in Germany two tendencies asserted themselves. Some aimed to make it a system of pensions and proposed to put the whole burden on the state treasury, others thought that insurance should only be modified saving and that the state should do no more than encourage and even compel, if necessary, each workingman to save. The system, as it was actually carried through, was a combination of both principles.

Every person of the classes designated must be insured if over sixteen years of age. The insurance demands a weekly payment of from 14 to 36 pfennigs (from 3 to 8 cents) a week, according to the amount of wages received; this payment is divided equally between the employers and the employees, so that the workingman contributes only from 1½ to 4 cents a week. The state's share consists in contributing 50 marks ($12) a year to each pension or annuity, besides sharing to a large extent in the expenses of administration. In return for his small payments the insured is entitled to an invalid pension in case of a general failure of health or a prolonged sickness (if it lasts over twenty-six weeks during which the sick benefit funds render the necessary assistance). The annual amount consists of the fifty marks supplied by the government and an annual sum determined in a rather complicated way by the amount of the weekly payment and a third sum dependent upon the number of payments actually made. Thus there are combined in this system the three elements of pension, insurance and savings. The actual sum varies from 116 to 450 marks a year.

A similar annuity is paid to each insured who has reached the age of seventy, provided he has paid in at least 1,200 weekly premiums (that is for about 25 years); the amount of the old age annuity is much smaller, varying between 110 and 230 marks. There are also various provisions for medical treatment of the invalids, return of monies to workingwomen at the time of their marriage, etc. The sums paid are not any too extravagant, it is true, and the age of seventy years so high, that the workingmen have justly refused to become very enthusiastic over the prospect of $26 to $54 a year at an age which a hard working man reaches very rarely, though it must not be forgotten that this sum means a great deal more in Germany than in the United States. Yet the invalid insurance is more promising, and, what is much more important, the German insurance legislation is not at a standstill. The first wedge has been entered, the principle has been established, and further efforts will undoubtedly bring about the desired results, that the self-respecting wage worker need not fear becoming a pauper or a public charge at an age that should command respect, and should be entitled to the comforts of quiet home life.

For some years Germany stood alone in her bold undertaking. The industrial world watched with horror these encroachments upon the time-honored political philosophy of "laissez faire."

But the beneficial results of this scheme became so palpable, that its influence did not fail to extend far beyond the borders of the German Empire. At first the opposition to "this craze of compulsion," as it was called by an Italian economist, was violent and bitter. But opposition soon gave way to imitation. The semi-German neighbor of Germany, Austria, was the first to follow. The Austrian system of sick insurance, introduced in 1888, was an improved copy of the German legislation. The minimum of sick money has been made 60 per cent instead of 50, and the agitation has finally resulted in a sickness insurance law which was made applicable to all industrial and agricultural workers with a maximum wage of 1,200 gulden (about $480). In the matter of accident insurance, German influence was

still more potent, even if most other countries have somewhat modified the German system. The Austrian law of 1887 has closely followed the German pattern, though the organization of the funds is not by industries, but by territorial divisions. Another distinct feature of the Austrian system is that the workmen are made to participate in the expenses of accident insurance to the extent of 10 per cent.

Until 1895 Germany and Austria kept this isolated position. Then almost all the other European nations rapidly fell in line. Norway, Finland, Italy and Holland have by this time systems of obligatory accident insurance. All these countries have organized central governmental banks to carry on the insurance business, but kept the provision forcing the employer to pay all the charges. The last three states named also permit insurance in private insurance companies.

In a number of European countries a somewhat modified system has been introduced, which goes by the name of compulsory compensation for accidents. No special organizations are created, but the individual employer is financially responsible for the payment of indemnities and annuities without the slow process of litigation. Great Britain, since 1898, Denmark and France since 1899, Sweden since 1901, have been among these countries. Even backward Russia was forced to yield to the demands of the workers and public opinion, and has had a similar law since January 1, 1904. Belgium passed its law before the close of 1903, to take effect during the current year. In so far as it guarantees the workingman the benefits of compensation when an accident does occur, it is a system of insurance in principle, if not in name. Unfortunately it works very imperfectly. The recalcitrant and irresponsible employer must frequently be sued against, and in cases of the small and financially weak employer of labor, a prolonged payment of an annuity becomes somewhat uncertain in these days of insecurity for even considerable enterprises. When the employer has failed, the claim of the invalid, though usually given a preferred standing, may or may not be made good.

These harmful features are somewhat limited by the permission granted to the employer to reinsure himself against these claims in some private company, and it is a powerful argument in favor of insurance that the better class of employers usually prefer to do so. However, the protests against this half measure are loud in France, Belgium and Russia, and a closer modeling after the German pattern is, in these countries, probably a matter of time. But in no industrial country of Europe has the old system survived, with litigation for a bulk sum, the larger part of which falls into the hands of the rapacious attorney, while in most cases no damages can be recovered at all.

No other European country has as yet followed Germany's example in the matter of a thorough and universal system of old age and invalid insurance; but scarcely a civilized country can be named in Europe where the scheme has not been agitated during the last ten years, and has not been discussed and presented to the legislative bodies. In fact so rapidly does the influence of the German institutions spread, that any statement made is liable to be out of date the next day. Since 1891 no single year has passed but has brought some important measure in the domain of labor insurance in some European country. Above all it must be pointed out, that the influence of German example is much broader than the few quoted examples of *compulsory* insurance would indicate.

It is abolutely impossible in this paper to give even a brief survey of the many and varied systems of voluntary insurance existing in France, Italy, Belgium, England, Switzerland—in fact in almost all European countries. The existence of these voluntary and private organizations aiming at assistance in case of sickness,

and of various private and governmental savings banks, to encourage savings and provision for the future, is often pointed at as an argument against the necessity of compulsory insurance systems. Yet the development of even these institutions, under governmental control and often with governmental assistance, was due to the stimulus of the German example; notably so in France, Belgium and the Scandinavian countries. But notwithstanding this considerable governmental aid, the number of insured remains as small and the struggle for a comprehensive *compulsory* system continues.

Statistical figures usually make very dry reading, and it is not the purpose of this short study to frighten away the reader from a subject exceedingly serious and complicated, and therefore necessarily difficult, by delving in unnecessary technicalities and details. Yet a few statistical data are quite necessary to convey a proper conception of the important result already achieved within the short period of twenty years.

In 1902 the German Empire had a population of 57,700,000 and the number of wage workers was approximately above 16,500,000. In that year there were 10,500,000 persons insured against sickness, 17,600,000 against accident, and 13,400,000 names were enrolled for old age and invalid insurance. The differences are due to the fact that the different laws do not all embrace exactly the same classes, and as voluntary insurance is permitted to large groups of persons for whom it is not made obligatory, the three insurance systems do not prove an equal attraction. In the case of accident insurance the number of insured actually surpasses the number of wage workers; it evidently includes many hundreds of thousands from other economic classes. The figures certainly show that the German system of insurance is a universal system of insurance.

During these seventeen years almost 48,000,000 cases of illness with more than 809,000,000 sick days have come under the care of the sick benefit funds and over 1,000,000 victims of accidents assisted. For the period of seventeen years the total income of the sick insurance funds reached the enormous sum of $504,100,000 of which $144,500,000 was contributed by the employers and $335,200,000 by the employees and $23,400,000 was received as interest and other income.* The expenses for the same period were $464,200,000, leaving with the sick benefit funds a reserve of $43,700,000. Of this enormous sum only $27,000,000 or 5.8 per cent was spent for purposes of administration, and all the rest went directly to help the insured. Moreover these expenses show a marked tendency to decrease. In 1885 they were 6.31 per cent of the total expenses, and in 1901 only 5.61 per cent. Certainly no private insurance company in the world was able to make such a showing, and with some of the American insurance companies who make a specialty of insuring people of moderate means, the expenses of administration were four or five times as high.

The results of accident insurance, though told in somewhat smaller numbers, are in their way no less imposing For the same period the income was $230,800,000, all of which with the exception of $28,400,000 of miscellaneous income, was paid by the employers. Here the expenses have been $198,100,000, leaving a reserve of $42,700,000.

Old age and invalid insurance has been in existence a much shorter time, but its operations from the very beginning have been on a much larger scale; for the eleven years 1891-1901 altogether $376,100,000 has been collected of which $285,500,000 has been contributed by employers and employees in approximately even shares; the share of the state constituted $50,200,000 and $40,500,000 came from miscellaneous sources. The

*The data have been stated in United States equivalents and "rounded out;" for statistical accuracy was thought less essential than clearness of statement.

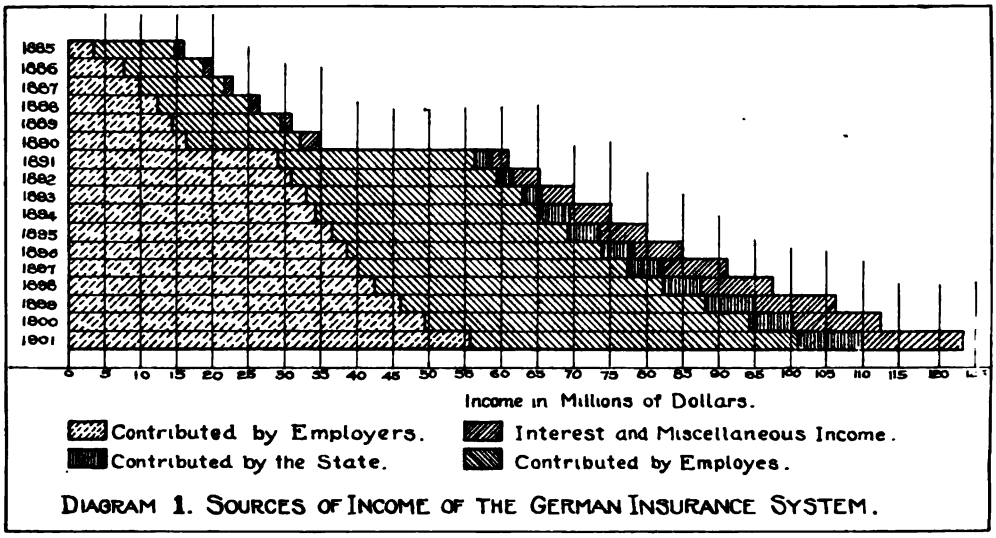


DIAGRAM 1. SOURCES OF INCOME OF THE GERMAN INSURANCE SYSTEM.

Notice the rapid growth of the total income; the sudden increase in 1891, due to introduction of old age insurance; the appearance of state contributions in the same year; and the more rapid increase of the employers' contributions than those of the employees.

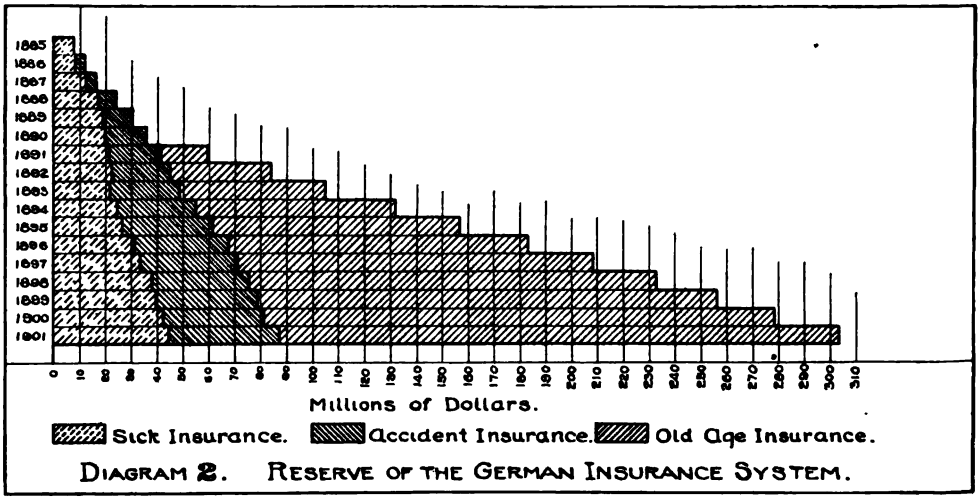


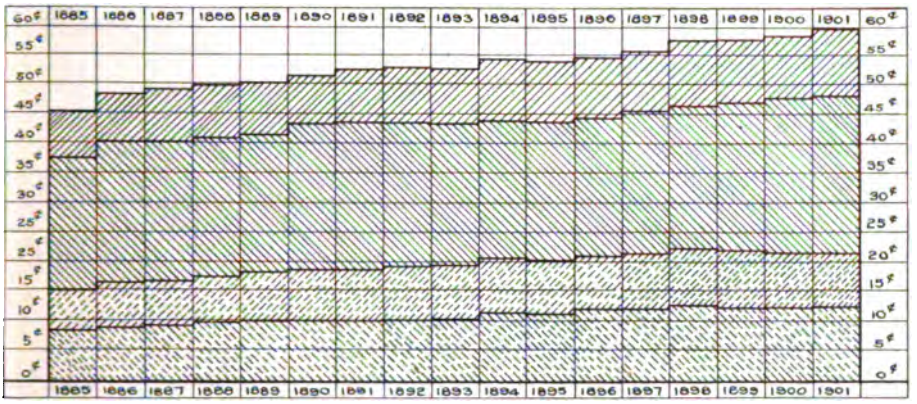
DIAGRAM 2. RESERVE OF THE GERMAN INSURANCE SYSTEM.

This shows the enormous capital accumulated by the insurance system in 16 years. The largest portion belongs to the old age and invalid insurance, which is a composite system of insurance and savings.

payments here were necessarily much smaller, the larger part going into a reserve fund for future pensions. The total expenditures were $161,000,000 of which only$18,300,000 or 11.4 per cent was for purposes of administration. From 1891 to 1901 the expenses of administration had fallen from 20.3 per cent to 9.3 per cent. The reserve fund of the old age insurance system has reached within eleven years the enormous amount of $217,400,000.

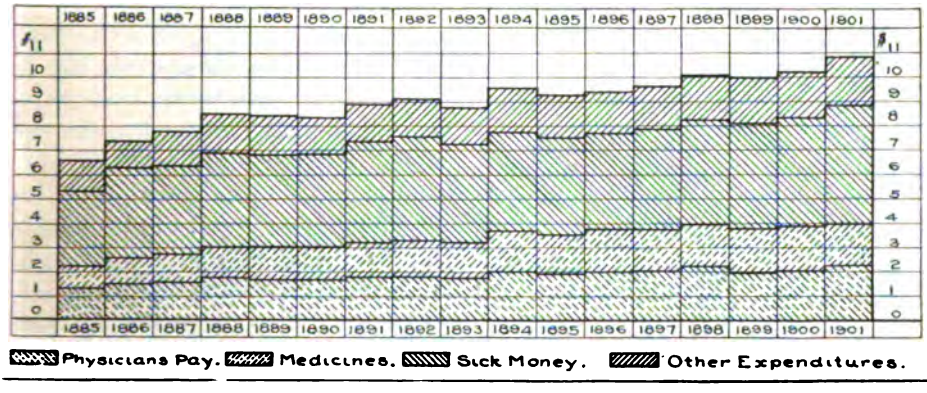
For all forms of insurance together, $1,121,000,000 was received, of which $500,000,000 was contributed by the employers, $469,000,000 by the workers, $50,200,000 by the state, and $92,000,000 from other sources, mainly interest. The expenditures were $821,000,000 of which $78,600,000 were for administration purposes, or 9.6 per cent. An enormous reserve capital of $303,800,000 was collected, to be devoted to the welfare of the workers in the future. We have used

DIAGRAM 3. AVERAGE IDEMNITY FOR ONE DAY OF SICKNESS.



Shows the general improvement in the methods of caring for the sick; the amount of sick money has grown but little; remuneration of physicians, purchase of medicines and kindred supplies, and especially "other expenditures," which include hospitals, nurses, sanatoria, have almost doubled. It must be remembered that the German mark has a much higher purchasing value than a quarer in this country. Yet the effect of organization in making medical help cheaper is here clearly shown.

DIAGRAM 4. AVERAGE IDEMNITY FOR ONE CASE OF SICKNESS.



Notice the general increase for all classes of payments, but especialy in payment of sick money, which increased from about $3 to almost $5. A comparison with Diagram 3 shows that the average incapacity to work in a case of sickness amounts to 16 days. Notwithstanding the extreme cheapness of physician's help and medicines, the financial aspect of a case of sickness in a workingman's family appear to be grave.

these large totals for seventeen years for the purpose of emphasizing the enormous dimensions of German insurance activity. It must not for a moment be thought, however, that a range of one year's activity can be obtained through a simple division of the totals by seventeen. The influence of labor insurance has rapidly grown in quantity as well as quality, and in 1901 alone the payments received were $123,200,000 and the expenditures $99,300,000. Of all the sources of income the contributions of the employers have been growing most rapidly, from 28 per cent of the income in 1885 to 45 per cent in 1901, while the workingman's share has decreased from 72 per cent to 38 per cent.

Thus the employers, and to a much smaller extent the state, were forced by Germany's legislation to contribute large sums to the comfort and happiness of the whole working people. A wanton and

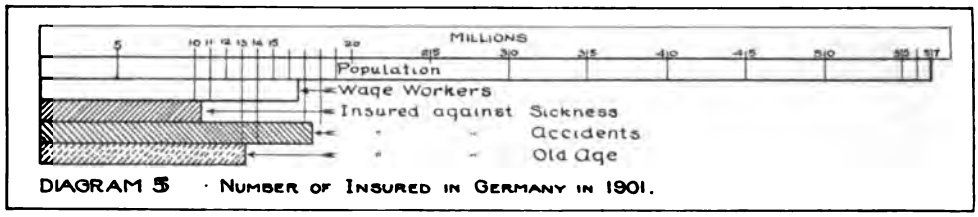


DIAGRAM 5 · NUMBER OF INSURED IN GERMANY IN 1901.

Shows the relation between total population, number of wage workers, and number of insured in 1901. There are more people insured against accidents that there are wage workers.

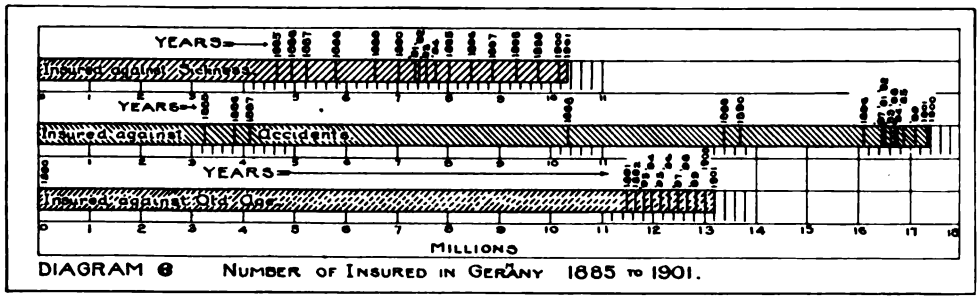


DIAGRAM 6 NUMBER OF INSURED IN GERMANY 1885 TO 1901.

Shows the growth of number of insured in each branch of compulsory insurance from year to year. The small increases are due to normal increase of the wage workers class, the large increases to extension and amendment of legislation.

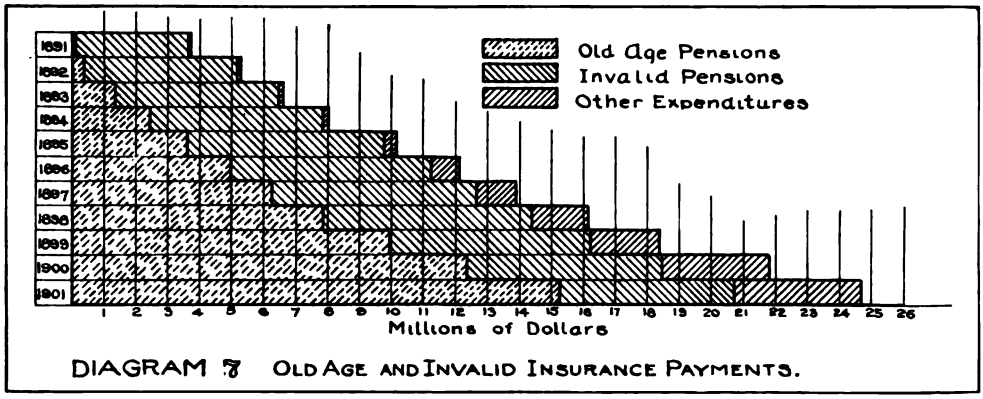


DIAGRAM 7 OLD AGE AND INVALID INSURANCE PAYMENTS.

Shows the increase of old age payments over invalid pensions. Provision for each aged workman, rather than the isloated invalid, is becoming the more important feature. Other expenditures include: repayment of premiums to women at marriage, medical treatment of invalids, etc.

arbitrary process of confiscation it has been called by some, while others are more inclined to look upon it in the nature of a payment of an old and just debt. It must be noticed that the objections are much louder outside of Germany than among the German employers, the majority of whom have gradually come to see the justice of this institution.

The limited space of this short study absolutely prohibits any extensive comparisons with other countries. The example of Belgium may be quoted briefly to show the superiority of compulsory as against a voluntary system of insurance. Sickness insurance is carried on by friendly societies which are encouraged and assisted by the government. Notwithstanding this, and the highly developed spirit of coöperation, the membership scarcely reaches 600,000 or less than 9 per cent of the population, while in Germany the insured equal 18 per cent; and though Belgium expends several million

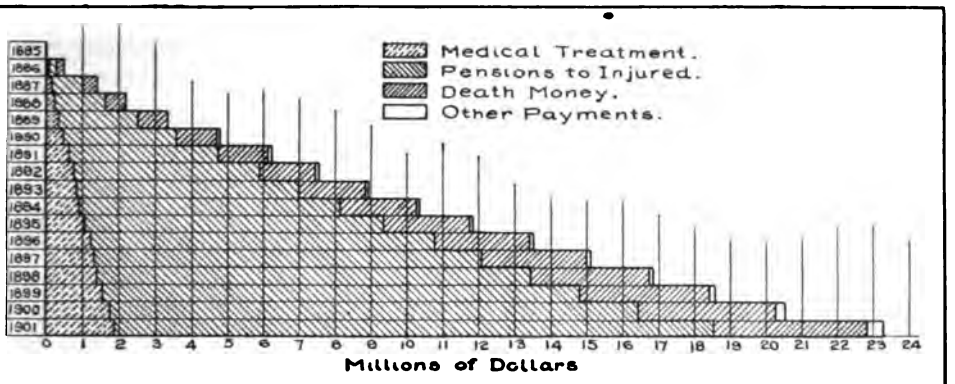


DIAGRAM 8. ACCIDENT INSURANCE PAYMENTS.

The growth in total quantity of payments is explained largely by the indemnity usually being in the form of a pension, often for the lifetime of the injured. Notice the payments of "death money" which is to be used for burial expenses. No need of Potter's Field for the German workingman.

dollars each year in bonuses for small savings bank accounts, only about 100,000 workmen are members of the superannuation fund. In view of these conditions the Belgian government was forced to grant temporarily (until 1911) the annual sum of 65 francs ($13) to all the workmen over the age of 65 who are in need, and the number of pensioners has passed 200,000.

One must, however, guard against the mistake of idealizing conditions. Criticisms of the compulsory insurance system in Germany are not wanting; but they are directed against certain provisions and the working of the system and much less against the principle itself, as even the employers have acquiesced in it, though they carry the heaviest burden.

Some of those faults were pointed out above, namely the high age limit of old age insurance and the very limited compensation. A feeling is also growing up that a wage worker who loses his health or limb through no fault of his own, should not be made to lose even one-third of his income. Further efforts will undoubtedly be made to remedy this and other shortcomings. Compulsory insurance has not brought the millennium to the German people. Nor was it expected. It has not even altogether destroyed poverty, for it has not even touched upon one of the main causes, which is not sickness, nor accident, but unemployment. Several experiments with insurance against unemployment have been made in Swiss towns, but have met with failure. And a compulsory system of state insurance against unemployment has never as yet been tried. But it would hardly be fair to condemn a social institution for not having succeeded in accomplishing something which it never intended to undertake. In its own field the system of compulsory sick, accident, old age and invalid insurance has proved more efficient and satisfactory than any other practical measure directed toward the same ends that has ever existed. No greater praise can be given to an existing human institution.

[For comprehensive bibliography by Mr. Rubinow see "Survey of Civic Betterment" in this issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN—EDITOR.]

How the American Boy Is Educated

The High School Period

By Walter L. Hervey

Formerly President of Teacher's College; Member of the Board of Examiners, New York City Schools.

THE average boy who has completed the grades of the elementary school is possessed of little more than the elements of knowledge, and the bare foundations of efficiency. He can read, write legibly, spell with fair accuracy, figure with some facility and intelligence, express himself with more or less clearness and correctness. His knowledge of facts is likely to be limited and hazy. His power to observe accurately, describe with precision, and infer justly, in some small department, has been somewhat sharpened by his course in school. He has gained in patience; whether he has materially gained in skill and accuracy in hand work, in forethought, in good judgment, may be considered doubtful. His taste for interesting and improving reading has without doubt been cultivated. That his usefulness to society is still largely undeveloped, is indicated by his earning power, which is slight. The grammar school graduate is, to use a familiar figure, "more profitable to feed up than to kill." Generally speaking, a boy of parts who leaves school at fourteen, does so at a sacrifice both to himself and to the community whose servant he is. The normal and proper destination of a graduate of the elementary school is the high school, or its equivalent.

The American high school of the modern type is chiefly the growth of the past generation. Secondary schools, in the form of Latin schools and academies, had existed in America since the founding of the Boston Latin School in 1635. But, (the U. S. Commissioner of Education is authority for the statement) on January 1, 1850, there were in the United States only eleven high schools that had a course of study from two to four years in length, laid out progressively so as to cover branches of mathematics and foreign languages together with advanced studies in literature, natural science, and ancient history. This number had increased to 44 in 1860, to 160 in 1870, to nearly 800 in 1880, to 2,526 in 1890; and in 1900 the total had become 6,005. This increase was confined to no section of the country, though in the last decade it was especially marked in the southern states. It occurred in urban and rural districts alike. And, furthermore, these schools were called forth, not by the ukase of a central power, but by the needs of the people and their belief in the value of education to meet those needs.

I can remember as a boy hearing people object to high schools, as being "unconstitootional." "District schools," said the loafers around the grocery store stove, "are all right enough, because if you don't educate a boy at public expense, the town may have to support him; but why should

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This is the seventh of a series of nine articles on "How the American Boy Is Educated." In this series Mr. Hervey will undertake to give a picture of the various and contrasting conditions under which the American boy is being built into a man through education. The following articles have already appeared: Education and the American Boy, September; Home Education, October; Bodily Basis: Physician and Teacher, November; Schooling in Country and City, December; Changes in the Common School Curriculum, January; Aspects of the Elementary School, February.

one man be taxed in order that another man's son may study Latin and algebray?" And more recently I have heard objection raised to the expansion of public high schools "because they divert public money from urgently needed elementary schools: when we have all the elementary schools we need, then is the time to multiply high schools."

But while loafers and theorists were discussing law and finance the people were taxing themselves to build, equip, and man high schools. Colleges, professional schools, and even employers were raising their academic requirements. The boys and girls, who in the hunger for more schooling had lingered in the upper grades of the elementary school, gnawing the dry bones of "higher arithmetic" and "advanced grammar," eagerly embraced the new opportunities. It began to be realized that an efficient system of elementary education is impossible without a fully developed system of higher education from which to draw teachers. And it speedily became no longer personally pleasant or politically safe to be known as an enemy of high schools. That the people have a right to provide at public expense the highest educational advantages for the children of the community, has been decided once for all by the court of public opinion. In answer to the question, "Which alternative will you choose,—that the less intelligent half of the community shall be completely illiterate, or that half of the children capable of receiving higher instruction shall be cut off from that instruction?"—the people have said, "We shall choose neither of these alternatives, but we will provide both elementary and higher education as fast and as fully as we can."

No more striking example of the spread of the high school idea can perhaps be found than the following. In the former city of New York, there existed prior to 1897 no public high school, except the College of the City of New York, for boys, and the Normal College, for girls, both of which admitted each year, on competitive examination, a limited number of the graduates of the elementary schools, and gave them an abridged high school and college course. When, in 1897, three high schools were opened, there were many who feared that there might not be money enough for the elementary schools; some even were jealous for the two colleges above mentioned; but the people were tremendously eager for the new advantages. The three schools were three high schools were opened, there overflowed into as many annexes. A school of commerce for boys, a technical school for girls, and a manual training school for boys were founded to supplement the original schools, which offered classical, scientific, and general courses. Nearly twelve thousand boys and girls in the Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, who, *if they had lived eight years ago, could not have gone beyond the grammar schools,* are today enjoying the benefits of a high shcool education. Such figures show better than any amount of argument or eloquence that these schools are meeting the wants of the people and that the people want the schools."

It would be an error to suppose that, even though the high school ladder is planted before every American boy, any considerable proportion of American youth climb thereon. Many a lad has to leave school to work. Too many of those who might keep on, feel the pull of the current and are swept out of the quiet waters of the school into the rushing midstream of practical life. Some, alas, live so far from a high school that attendance is discouraging or impracticable. It has been estimated by a careful writer that, in this country, about 94 out of every 100 pupils entering primary schools are living eight years later, and that less than seven of these are in high schools. For every hundred in elementary schools, there are but three in secondary schools. "One-half of the most capable children in the

ception of what a school is for. If it be true, as President Eliot has said, that the aim of education is "to lift the whole population to a higher plane of intelligence, conduct, and happiness," the school must not limit its courses to any class or section of the community. The course must be adapted to the aspiring son of a laboring man as well as to the descendant of a long line of classically trained ministers or jurists. But this is not all. It must be recognized that within the same social stratum no two individuals are alike, and that it is the chief business of the school to discover the individual aptitudes of each of its members. It is true of the elementary school to a certain extent, but of the secondary school to a much greater extent, that it is the business of the school to help the individual to discover himself. But it is evident that this requirement calls for a varied curriculum. A born scientist cannot discover himself in a purely classical curriculum. Hence the enrichment of the modern high school course.

But enrichment naturally necessitates freedom of choice. For this reason, as well as for the reason that freedom is in the air, the elective system is an essential feature of the American high school. The program of studies of a certain high school, in which the elective system is wisely administered, calls for fifteen week-hours in each of five years, of which thirteen week-hours are required in the first year, seven in the second, four in the third and four in each of the remaining years. The required subjects in the first year are English, physiology, mathematics and physical training. In the second year, English, history and physical training. In the remaining years, English and physical training. The elective subjects include Latin, French, German, Greek, mathematics, history, physics, physiography, chemistry, music, manual training, and art.

The nature of the enrichment in the single subject of English is indicated by the following syllabus in English during the five years. The wealth of material in this course, together with the fact that it is all required, suggests the following significant quotation from President Eliot, which, of course, applies as well to secondary as to elementary education: "That schooling which results in this taste for good reading, however unsystematic or eccentric the schooling may have been, has achieved a main end of elementary education; and that school which does not result in implanting this permanent taste has failed."

1 Year. Themes; memorizing; drill in spelling; wide supplementary reading. The Rose and the Ring; Tales of a Traveler; Marmion; The Brook; Treasure Island; Quentin Durward; Tale of Two Cities; As You Like It. Byron's Narrative Poems; Selected Poems from Wordsworth.

2 Year. Narration; description; exposition; argument; punctuation. Weekly themes; lectures; note-books; wide supplementary reading. Palmer's Odyssey; Midsummer Night's Dream; Kidnapped; Bracebridge Hall; House of the Seven Gables; Whittier's War Poems; ballads; Franklin's Autobiography, etc.

3 Year. Weekly themes; memorizing; lectures and class discussion on the chief types of literature; extensive outside reading; note-book work. Ivanhoe; Silas Marner; An Inland Voyage; Ancient Mariner; Hamlet; Twelfth Night; The Rivals; Palgrave's Golden Treasury.

4 Year. Themes; memorizing, library reference work, with oral and written reports. Prologue to Canterbury Tales; Merchant of Venice; Macbeth; Sir Roger de Coverley Papers; Carlyle's Essay on Burns; Idylls of the King.

5 Year. Themes; frequent written tests; memorizing; systematic study of grammar; library reference work. Browning's Shorter Poems; Macaulay's Essays on Addison and Johnson; Burke's Speech on Conciliation; Julius Caesar; L'Allegro;; Il Penseroso; Comus; Lycidas.

An interesting phase of the current adjustment of high school courses to community needs is seen in the proposal, which has been mooted for the past six or eight years to lengthen the high school course to five or six years by dip-

ping down into the course of the elementary school. The fact that this is the practice in the German *gymnasium* and in the French *lycée* has probably had comparatively little weight in the discussion, although the advantages of the French and the German plan are apparent. The main reasons which have led to the serious consideration of this adjustment are as follows: the need of enriching the course of the elementary school with high school subjects like algebra, geometry, French, German and Latin; the urgent need of shortening the total course of education so that a boy who enters school at six may enter college at seventeen, and the graduate or professional school at twenty-one; and the possibility of rendering the progress from year to year, and from school to school, easy through closer organization. There always has existed a certain gap between the elementary school and the high school. The proposed solution would close up this gap by moving the transition from the elementary school to high school back one or two years, where it can be made more naturally. The recent plan of Superintendent Maxwell for organizing intermediate schools is in line with this proposal.

The characteristics of the secondary school period are the characteristics of adolescence. From the age of eight years onward, the look of the growing boy is cast toward the future; he is even then beginning to think about what he is going to become in school and in after life. At the age of fifteen or sixteen this feeling becomes intensified, the pull of the outer world begins to be more strongly felt. With some boys it is felt so strongly as to prove fatal to the continuance of school life. Moreover, the period is one of great increase of vigor, both of mind and body. The likes and dislikes are stronger. Emulation is keener, motives of all kinds are more powerful. Especially is this true of the social motives. The boy has all his life been a social being. He has been unconsciously moulded by his school fellows. But in the high school period the social instincts, impulses, and feelings are tremendously reinforced. The boy begins to care about clothes, personal habits, bearing, and address. He cares about the opinions of his set and is powerfully moulded thereby. The fraternity spirit, which, even in the elementary school flares up spasmodically, begins to burn with a steadier and intenser flame. The local, and for the most part short-lived, high school fraternities are midway between the ephemeral clubs of the elementary school, and the national and permanent societies of the college world. In the high school the boys often organize their own fraternities, and call them by names of their own making: "The Order of the Brotherhood of the White Skull," for instance, designated by Greek letters corresponding to the initials of the English words. The fraternity may last out the year, or it may persist through several generations of school boys. Its influence may be chiefly for good or chiefly for ill. But such organizations and the impulses that give rise to them are among the most powerful of educative forces. How the American boy is educated depends as largely on the other boys, as on any other single factor—especially in the high school.

Nature Study

Tree Study in Winter

By Anna Botsford Comstock

Bureau of Nature Study, Cornell University.

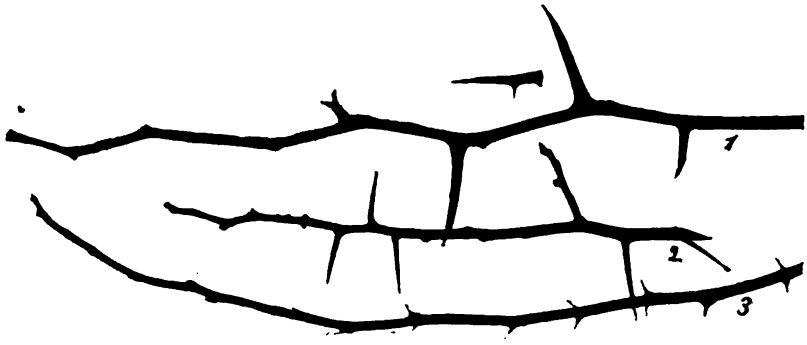
IT would seem snobbish, to say the least, if we were to recognize our friends and acquaintances only when they were dressed in their best clothes. Yet many of us rejoice in the spreading branches of a tree when covered with leaves and pass by indifferently when these same branches are displayed in all their grace of form and beauty of spray, shorn of their summer glory. To some, the only trees recognized in winter are the evergreens. However, to the true lover of trees they are quite as beautiful and interesting in winter as in summer or autumn, and the characters that distinguish them are quite as noticeable.

The country boy who early learns the treasures of the wood-lot recognizes the different species of trees more readily in winter than in summer. It might be difficult for him to say just why he is able to call a tree by name the moment he sees it; he "just naturally knows" what it is. His trained eye takes in at a glance the general shape of bole and branches, the angle of the branches to the trunk, the coarseness or fineness of the twigs or spray, and above all he looks at the bark. Thus it must be with every one who learns to know trees in their winter guise. It is not a knowledge that can be gained from books, or from the experiences of others; it must be gained at first hand or not at all.

HOW TO LEARN TO DISTINGUISH TREES IN WINTER

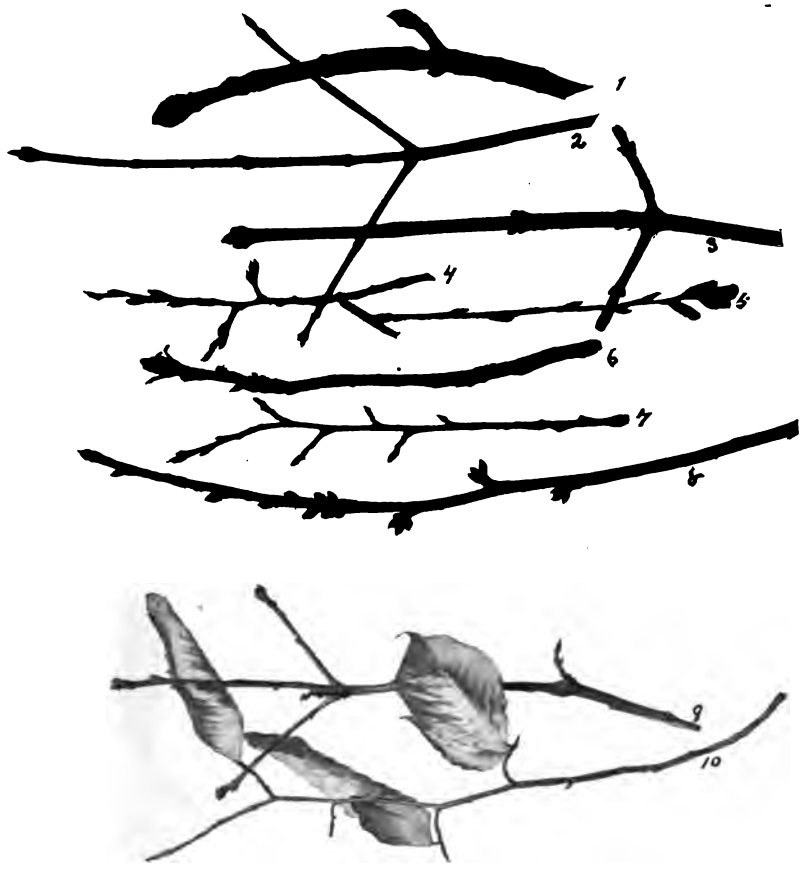
First begin with the trees that grow along the roadsides and in the fields; select the ones you know, then take those you do not know, one at a time; ask the name of any farmer; become perfectly familar with every detail of its appearance, and select others which seem like it. If you are clever at drawing, or even if you are not, try to draw it, as a help to observation. Study it according to the following outline:

(a). General shape of whole tree.
(b). Height of bole as compared with height of tree.
(c). Is bole slender or stocky; does



Some trees may be distinguished by their thorns: 1. Twig of honey locust. 2. Twig of thornapple. 3. Twig of common black locust.

This is the fifth of a series of home Nature Study Lessons for the parents and teachers prepared by the Cornell Bureau of Nature Study. Lessons for children of the Chautauqua Junior Naturalist clubs will appear each month in *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, New York. The following articles have already appeared in THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Leaves, October; Seed Distribution, November; Evergreens I, December; Ev ergreens II, January.



Some trees may be distinguished by the shape and arrangement of their buds. 1. Horse-chestnut. 2. Sugar-maple. 3. Ash. 4. Elm. 5. Yellow birch. 6. Shag-bark hickory. 7. Wild black cherry. 8. Sweet cultivated black cherry. 9. White oak. 10. Beech.

it continue straight up into the tree or divide into great branches?

(d). What sort of bark has it, rough or smooth? If rough, are the ridges far apart or close together; do they intersect or are they distinct and vertical? Are there any transverse markings or sutures? If smooth, what is its texture; does it peel or roll; if so, how?

(e). What is the color of the bark, and what blotches or markings are there on it; are these markings transverse or vertical?

(f). Are the lower branches very large; does the bark on them resemble that on the trunk?

(g). At what angle do the branches in general stand to the tree?

(h). Are there many large branches?

(i). Where is the spray borne, along the branches or at the tips?

(j). "Spray" is a term used for the masses of twigs because they look like the spray of a fountain. Study the spray; is it coarse or fine; does it stand erect or droop; what is its color?

(k). A study of the buds often helps greatly in case of doubt; what is their color; are they opposite or alternate; are they pointed or blunt; are they large or small when measured by the width of the twig; are they long and slender or nearly globular? Below the bud is a scar where the leaf grew last year. The shape and size of these leaf scars may determine the species. Are they opposite or alternate? Only three of our common trees have the buds and leaf scars opposite: these are the maples, the ashes and the horse chestnut.

(l). Do the leaves cling to the branches during winter? This is quite characteristic of the beech and certain oaks.

(m). See if there is any fruit or outer shells which contained fruit still clinging to the tree. A dozen of our common trees may thus be identified.

Some trees retain their fruits during the winter. 1. Basswood. 2. Catalpa. 3. Sycamore or button ball. 4. Common or black locust. 5. Honey locust. 6. Tulip tree. 7. Speckled alder.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SOME OF OUR COMMON TREES AS SEEN IN WINTER.

The elm is perhaps the most unmistakable of all our trees when leafless. It may be vase-shaped or its branches may droop, so that it looks like a flowing fountain, or it may be neither; but there is a "quirly" look about the spray which with the blackness of the bark against a snow background reveals its identity.

The maple is another that flaunts its name in our faces; its branches set close and at a sharp angle to the trunk, divide into fine erect spray, suggesting a giant whisk-broom.

That slender aristocrat from France, the Lombardy poplar, lifts its short branches so that it is always a spire against the sky. And the landscape-artist therefore plants it where there are buildings with towers, turrets, and steeples, as it helps give the eye a heaven-ward lift.

Very different from the Lombardy poplar in its habit of growth is the low broad thorn-apple which spreads itself like a tent in fence corners.

AMERICAN ELM

LOMBARDY POPLARS

Other lovers of the fence corners are the wild cherries. Of these, two are black, one being a true wild cherry and one being the sweet black cherry which by the aid of the birds has escaped from cultivation, to live a happy-go-lucky life in the fields. Both these black cherries may be recognized by the black, shining bark. The two, when fully grown, may be separated by these characters: the bark of the wild cherry peels off in little curls and appears the more ragged of the two;

COMMON OR BLACK LOCUST

SUGAR MAPLE

EUROPEAN WHITE BIRCH

RED OAK

as if it had been shaded with length-wise strokes of the pencil. The spray of the ash is coarse and has a blunt look, and the leaf buds are opposite.

The oaks are characterized by their gnarled and rugged branches which leave the trunk at a wider angle than is the case with most deciduous trees. There is a staunch and bulky look to the oaks that tells of their powers of endurance.

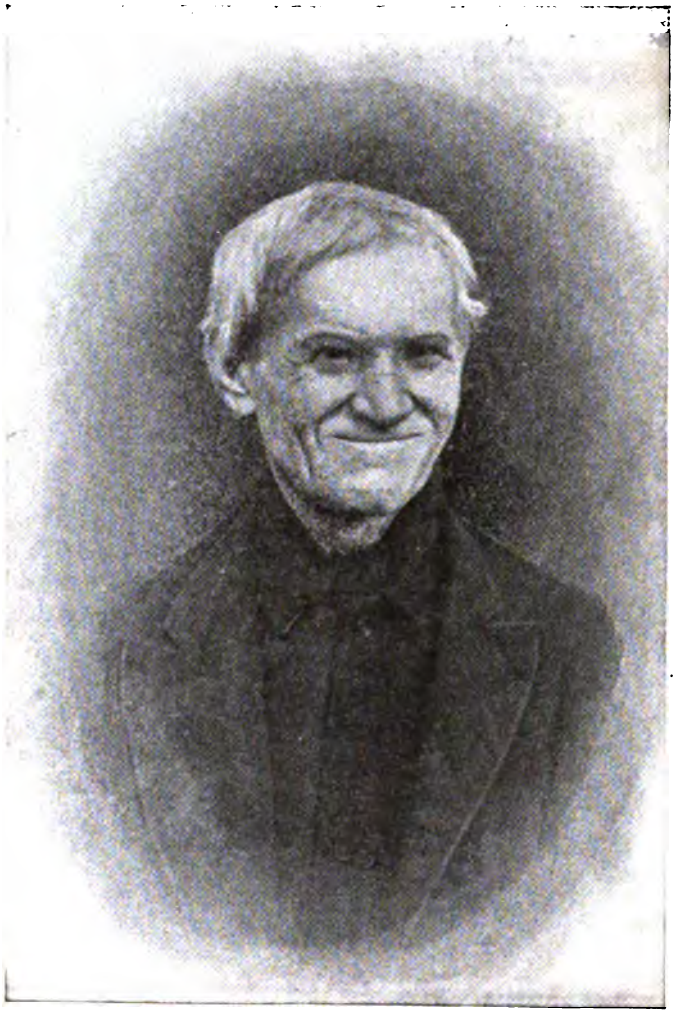
Thus does each tree species reveal its identity, though it may be leafless. The limits of this leaflet forbid the characterization of more kinds, but it is hoped that each pupil in the Home Nature Study class will begin or continue this study. The study of trees, like the study of birds, cannot be finished in one year, or ten, but when once begun is carried on involuntarily and unconsciously, thus affording delightful and ever growing interests to take us afield.

LESSON ON APPEARANCE OF TREES IN WINTER

1. What is happening in the life of the tree in winter?
2. Where is the sap? Why do not the trees freeze and burst?
3. Where are the leaves for the coming year?
4. How can you tell where last season's leaves were?
5. How many species of trees are you able to distinguish when leafless? What are they?
6. There are at least eight common trees that may be distinguished at a glance at the bark: what are they?
7. Look at the figure of fruits that cling all winter, on page 68, and tell what they are. Do you know any others that may be thus distinguished?
8. Look at the figure of the thorny branches. Tell what trees they belong to.
9. What birds' nests are seen in the winter in elms; in maples?
10. Select two trees and describe each according to the method suggested in the first pages of this lesson.

DUKE KARL THEODOR OF BAVARIA AND HIS WIFE

Duke Karl Theodor of Bavaria, brother of the late Empress Elizabeth of Austria, and son of Duke Maximilian of Austria, was born August 9, 1839. He first entered the army, serving in the artillery until the death of his wife, a daughter of Duke Johann of Saxony, in 1867. The inability of the physicians to be of any real assistance in his wife's illness (she died of diphtheria) prompted him to leave the army and take up the study of medicine. He studied at the University of Munich under Professor Rothmund and became an expert in oculist surgery, the branch of medical science to which he devoted himself. On April 29, 1874, he married his present wife, Princess Marie Josepha of Braganta (Portugal). Completing his studies he passed his state medical examination and was granted his M. D. Bv a special permit he was allowed to take up his practice and is now one of the most famous oculists in the world. To the year 1899 he had performed over 7,000 operations among which were about 3,300 cases of cataract. In the greater part of his operations, particularly in the serious ones, he is assisted by his wife. Not only does Duke Karl Theodor give his skilled services free to all the poor people who may apply to him, but he often provides hospital nursing at his own expense.



FRIEDRICH THEIL, THE PHILOLOGIAN

Friedrich Theil, the philologian, was born at Utenbach, Saxony, February 15, 1834. He was a farmer's son and had only a village school education. Though his teacher, surprised at the boy's exceptional talent, implored the father to give the boy an education, he refused. "I want him to become a farmer like myself," said the father, "and a farmer needs no knowledge except what pertains to farming and to the salvation of the soul." But the boy gratified his desire for knowledge in the evenings and on Sundays. Without any instruction whatever he studied from books he had secured, Greek and Hebrew, so that he read the original texts of the Bible with perfect ease. Latin he refused because it was "too easy." He read Homer, Herodotus, Apollodorus, Pindar, Plutarch, Pausanius, Diodorus, and Plato. Then he took up the study of Sanscrit, Arabic, and Egyptian hieroglyphics. History and ancient geography were favorite studies. Upon the death of his father he came into a little inheritance and was able by sacrificing every comfort of life, to apply himself almost exclusively to his studies, buying one standard work after the other on topics of interest to him. After thoroughly mastering Rawlinson's great work on the cuneiform inscriptions of Assyria, he bought all the reproductions of inscriptions he could possibly get and acquired a degree of learning on that subject that astonished Prof. F. Delitzsch of Leipsic. He still lives, studies, and writes excellent poetry, at Rauda, in Saxony, and is known to the students at Jena as the "Philosopher of Rauda."

EMPEROR WILLIAM'S ANNOUNCEMENT OF HIS POLICY OF COMPULSORY INSURANCE

The work of conciliation and social reform in the German Empire was initiated by the message of his majesty the Emperor William I to the Reichstag on the 17th of November, 1881. This message, as communicated by the Imperial Chancellor, Prince Bismarck, reads:

"We consider it our imperial duty to impress upon the Reichstag the necessity of furthering the welfare of the working people. We should review with increased satisfaction the manifold successes, with which the Lord has blessed our reign, could we carry with us to the grave the consciousness of having given our country an additional and lasting assurance of internal peace, and the conviction that we have rendered the needy that assistance to which they are justly entitled. Our efforts in this direction are certain of the approval of all the federate governments, and we confidently rely on the support of the Reichstag, without distinction of parties. In order to realize these views a bill for the insurance of workmen against industrial accidents will first of all be laid before you, after which a supplementary measure will be submitted providing for a general organization of industrial Sick Relief Insurance. But likewise those who are disabled in consequence of old age or invalidity possess a well-founded claim to a more ample relief on the part of the state than they have hitherto enjoyed. To devise the fittest ways and means for making such provision, however difficult, is one of the highest obligations of every community based on the moral foundations of Christianity. A more intimate connection with the actual capabilities of the people, and a mode of turning these to account in corporate associations, under the patronage and with the aid of the state, will, we trust, develop a scheme to solve which the state alone would prove unequal."

GERMAN SICK CLUBS

Under the German "Bill for the Insurance of the Sick" of June 15, 1883, provision was made among various forms of insurance, for "local sick clubs." In 1900 over 46 per cent of the workmen insured in the various insuring bodies were enrolled in the "sick clubs," indicating their popularity above other similar organizations. The reason for this popularity is that the clubs are allowed broad freedom in self-government. The members frame their own statutes for the club organization. There are legal regulations as to the investment of funds, receipts and expenditures, and similar financial matters, but the clubs are otherwise unrestricted.

To a large extent each of these sick clubs includes the workers of but one trade in the local city. Thus Berlin has 54 clubs, representing as many branches of trade, Hamburg 19, Hanover 10, etc. In only one city, Leipsic, have the various clubs united in one large organization, the "Common Club," with a membership of 141,000, representing 20,000 employers.

Elaborate provisions of the original "Bill for the Insurance of the Sick" require a minimum of assistance which seems very far reaching and thorough. Medical attendance, financial assistance to the sick and to families dependent upon them, provision for wife and children in case of death, free medical attendance to family of insured person, burial expenses of members and of families dependent upon members—all these obligations are assumed by the "sick club." In addition the club provides medical inspectors and dispensing chemists who supply medicines. The Leipsic club has, also, three estates used as convalescent homes which afford a change of air to patients. Two of these estates are in the hills, while the third is a bath resort. In the twelve years in which these convalescent homes have been in operation, 10,931 persons have been treated.

In addition, the Leipsic club has a convalescent establishment in the woods of a Leipsic suburb, in which consumptive members spend the warm summer days. Great efforts are made to combat tuberculosis, and steps are taken to have all members with such symptoms sent to health resorts and other suitable places of cure.

A RED CROSS ACCIDENT STATION IN BERLIN

RED CROSS ACCIDENT STATIONS

An interesting result of the "sick club" legislation in Germany has been the establishment in Berlin of Red Cross Accident Stations. This development sprang from a law passed in 1892 requiring coöperative accident associations to pay damages to the laborer in case of accident, or to contribute the cost of treatment after the thirteen weeks guaranteed by the sick club—provided, of course, that the patient required further treatment. To decrease the possibilities of such expensive treatment the coöperative associations obtained permission to establish red cross accident stations which by giving immediate attention to the injured would reduce the percentage of serious consequences and thus in the long run involve less expense. The stations are largely supported by the coöperative associations but some revenue is derived from the "sick clubs" which make payments for the temporary assistance afforded members.

The red cross stations thus originally established for the aid of those injured in industrial pursuits who were members of coöperative associations, have been obliged to extend their duties. Gradually the general public has taken advantage of the relief thus offered, and all persons subject to accident or sudden attack of sickness are now afforded assistance. When the injured person possesses means, a fee is charged, but when poor none is required. It is stated that of 313,000 emergency cases treated up to the year 1903 fully 100,000 were of needy persons unable to pay.

Says Dr. Albert Shaw (*Century*, July, 1894): "The German city holds itself responsible for the education of all; for the provision of amusement, and the means of recreation; for the adaptation of the training of the young to the necessities of gaining a livelihood; for the health of families; for the moral interests of all; for the civilizing of the people; for the promotion of individual thrift; for protection from various misfortunes; for the development of advantages and opportunities in order to promote the industrial and commercial well-being; and incidentally for the supply of common services and the introduction of conveniences. The method it employs to gain its ends are sometimes those advocated by the socialists, and sometimes they are diametrically opposite."

RAILWAY INSURANCE IN THE UNITED STATES

Max Riebenack, Assistant Comptroller of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, in an address delivered before the National Civic Federation, November 15, 1904, gave some valuable statistics in-

dicating the extent and nature of railroad employees' relief organizations as now in operation in the United States.

Many railroads are interested in securing accident and life insurance for their employees in other than purely railroad organizations. Says Mr. Riebenack:

Out of 24 roads conducting insurance plans of some sort nine are interested in strictly Railway Relief Associations, the others being concerned, under varying conditions, in (a) regular life and accident insurance, (b) mutual insurance, (c) endowment insurance, and (d) employees' relief associations or societies which are neither under the direct control nor operated as a department of the railroad companies.

The nine purely relief department roads represent an aggregate of 31,000 miles of roadway, or about fifteen per cent of the total railway mileage of the country, with employees numbering 318,000, or about twenty-four per cent of the total number of railway employees in the United States, and an insurance membership of 206,000 employees, or practically sixty-five per cent of the total number of employees identified with the roads involved, and this membership percentage would be largely increased were the computations based on exclusion of non-membership employees who are so because of ineligibility for membership, owing to age or physical disqualifications. The combined average annual disbursements of these departments aggregate $2,230,000, while their combined disbursements since organization reach close to $37,150,000.

(It must be remembered in comparing these statistics with those of industrial insurance in Germany that in all railway relief organizations in the United States membership is purely voluntary, whereas in Germany, old age, accident, and sick insurance are compulsory.)

In addition to relief departments some railroads have made a small provision for pension funds. Roads representing about twenty-four per cent of the total mileage and about thirty-eight per cent of the total number of employees of all roads in the United States have such provision. The pension funds are provided entirely by the railway companies, the beneficiaries making no contributions whatsoever. Sixteen roads now supply pension funds, two more are about to do so and several others are thinking of the matter. Of the funds now in operation, Mr. Riebenack says:

These funds represent an aggregate annual appropriation not to exceed $1,350,000, when necessary to make payment of pension allowance, while eight of the roads set aside orginally, as the basis of pension or working funds, an amount aggregating about $600,000. Twelve of the roads have expended since organization an aggregate of $2,500,000, and the roads concerned were carrying on their pension rolls the names of 3,200 pensioners at the end of the year 1903, while the aggregate mortality among pensioners, since fund organization, numbered 1,150.

In addition to relief and pension funds the railways are inaugurating other features of benefit to employees, though not in the nature of insurance. Saving funds, loan funds, hospital service, libraries and reading rooms, coöperative stock sharing, are enterprises many of which, though of comparatively small extent as yet, are of increasing scope and importance.

"As regards the proposal to introduce a system of compulsory insurance against sickness, a detailed description would lead us too far from our subject, but we may mention a scheme by Canon Blackley, under which it was originally proposed that everybody between the ages of 18 and 21 should be required to deposit with the Post Office a sum sufficient to provide for an allowance in case of sickness and for a pension in old age."—*"English Poor Law System," Dr. P. F. Aschrott.*

Old Age Pensions in England: "Some have merely contemplated an addition from the Exchequer to the funds of friendly societies, or the grant through the Post Office of a pension on specially advantageous terms, so that persons exhibiting thrift in these particular forms might obtain in their old age a larger return for their contributions than would be possible by merely actuarial calculations. Some have proposed to make such contributions in a greater or less degree compulsory and general; others have suggested that everybody at the age of 65 should receive a pension, no matter whether his circumstances require it or not. Between the two extremes of encouraging thrift by giving special inducement to membership of a friendly society, and of discouraging it by providing every one with public relief in old age, so that saving during youth and

middle life may be superfluous, every variety of project has been put forward."—*H. Preston Thomas.*

MODERN FACTORY IMPROVEMENT

Whatever their motives, modern factory owners are taking increasing care for the comfort and recreation of their employees. This is undoubtedly a good thing for the factory worker and is perhaps even better for the employer. It brings greater harmony between capital and labor and thus prevents strikes; and it makes the worker a more efficient producer.

Typical of this modern movement is the mill in Dayton, Ohio, of the Lowe Brothers Company. In it are lunch and rest rooms for both men and women, locker rooms with separate lockers for individual property, dressing rooms, etc. Owing to limited space some of these functions have been combined and the rest room serves also as a club room and a lunch room. But though crowded, the endeavor, constantly, is to make the factory as agreeable and homelike as fresh air, light, and pleasant decoration can make it.

The company provides for the laundering of the men's overalls and the women's aprons, for purposes of cleanliness and health. It has, too, endeavored to stimulate the interest of the employees in improvements making for the comfort and beauty of the factory. A system of prizes has been inaugurated to this end. Every suggestion that is accepted brings a prize of fifty cents, and every six months special prizes are given to those persons who have made the most and best suggestions during the half year just past.

There is in America no compulsory insurance as in Germany. There are, however, various sorts of relief and accident asociations. The employees of this factory support a relief association to which they pay fees of five and ten cents per week and receive benefits of $3 and $6 per week in case of sickness and accident. The relief association has been very successful, it is said, in the few years of its existence.

There are, doubtless, many more services and benefits which harmonious coöperation of employer and employee will, in time, secure. Many factories, indeed, are without any of the little improvements of this Dayton mill. But the significant fact is that there is a large and growing class of employers who realize the importance of improved working conditions for their employees and who are willing to experiment to that end.

CIVIC PROGRESS PROGRAMS

COMPULSORY INSURANCE

Correlation: Appoint some person to outline the interrelation of the civic topics in the March CHAUTAUQUAN: Compulsory Insurance; How the American Boy Is Educated; items in Survey of Civic Betterment and other departments.

Summary: Of article on Compulsory Insurance, by I. M. Rubinow, in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Definitions: Appoint some one or several members to give brief explanation of "compulsory insurance," "workingmen's insurance," "old age pensions," etc.

Paper: "Compulsory Insurance Outside of Germany." See Survey of Civic Betterment, THE CHAUTAUQUAN, March, 1905; Fourth Special Report of the Commissioner of Labor; Workingmen's Insurance, by W. F. Willoughby.

Assigned Readings: So far as possible get every member to accept one of the bibliographical references for advance reading and brief mention in the meeting of some interesting fact or statement.

Paper: "American Voluntary Relief and Insurance Systems." See Dividend to Labor, N. P. Gilman, and Bulletins of Bureau of Labor.

Paper: "American Old Age Pensions—Fire, Police, Industrial, Civil and Military Retirement, etc."

Investigation: A study of accident, sick, old age, and death insurance in your community. The form and extent of such provision, the resources and probable condition of those not provided for. This report may be quite limited, offering only a few suggestive statements and figures, or it may be extended almost without limit.

Debate: "Resolved, That Compulsory Insurance should be adopted in America." See bibliography.

Interviews: One or several members may get business men and workingmen to read Compulsory Insurance, by I. M. Rubinow, THE CHAUTAUQUAN, March, 1905, and then to give their judgment as to the desirability

and practicability of establishing similar systems in this country.

Discussion: What Shall We Do about it in America?

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

I. M. Rubinow has supplied the following bibliography: The literature of Labor Insurance in foreign languages, especially in German, is enormous, but the English literature on the subject is exceedingly meagre. The following list does not pretend to be complete, but probably includes all the works of importance:

1. Compulsory Insurance in Germany, by John Graham Brooks. (Fourth Special Report of the Commissioner of Labor) Washington, Government Printing Office, 1895.

A thorough and painstaking investigation, with an appendix relating to compulsory insurance in other European countries, but considerably out of date, as it brings the subject down only to 1892.

2. Workingmen's Insurance, by W. F. Willoughby, New York, T. Y. Crowell & Company, 1898.

Tries to cover a much broader field. The same objection applies to this work, though in a somewhat lesser degree. It remains, however, the only effort at a systematic presentation of the subject for all the main European countries.

3. Industrial Accidents and Employers Responsibility for their Compensation (in the Seventeenth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the State of New York, Albany, 1900, pp. 557-1162.) Is an excellent work on accident insurance.

All these works are probably out of print, but can probably be found in a well stocked public library.

4. Workman's Insurance in Germany, by N. Pinkus, *Yale Review*, 1904, February, May and November. The conclusion of the series is promised in the issue of February, 1905. A very interesting discussion of the results and merits of the German system.

5. Psychology of German Workman's Insurance, by Prof. Henry W. Farnam, *Yale Review*, May, 1904. An answer to Mr. N. Pinkus' articles, interesting as a statement of the stereotyped objections to compulsory insurance, which sound very old to any one acquainted with the German and French discussions of twenty years ago. A concluding answer is also promised in the February, 1905, issue.

6. Labor Insurance by I. M. Rubinow, *Journal of Political Economy*, June, 1904, deals mainly with the economic principles.

7. Compulsory State Insurance of Workingmen, by I. M. Rubinow, *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, September, 1904. Reprinted as 435 of the Publications of the Academy. A very brief argument for compulsory versus free private insurance and a refutation of the main objections against compulsory insurance.

8. Official catalogue of the exhibition of the German Empire. International Exposition, St. Louis, 1904. Published by George Stelke, Berlin, 1904. An English edition, copies of which can probably be bought of the publisher. Contains a brief statement of the German insurance system.

9. Numerous pamphlets, both in German and in English, were freely distributed by the German insurance exhibit in St. Louis and can possibly be obtained by writing to the Reichsverischerungsamt, Berlin, Germany.

10. Belgium, Its Institutions, Industries, and Commerce, Brussels, 1904; also published for the St. Louis Exposition. Contains a brief description of the Belgian voluntary system.

In general it may be said that an effort to collect the literature so freely distributed by the representatives of foreign countries at the World's Fair would certainly have more than repaid the expense of a visit to St. Louis.

11. Workman's Compensation Acts of Foreign Countries, by Adna F. Weber. (Bulletin of the United States Department of Labor, No. 40, May, 1902). Is a short and tabular list of the various systems of accident insurance.

12. The British Workman's Compensation Act, by A. Maurice Low. (*Ibid*, 32, January, 1901).

13. The Workman's Compensation Act of Holland (*Ibid*, 34, May, 1901).

14. The New Russian Workman's Compensation Act, by I. M. Rubinow (appears in Bulletin 57, March, 1905).

For purposes of comparison the following studies on American conditions will prove valuable, all published in the same series of Bulletins: Benefit Features of American Trade Unions, by E. W. Bemis, No. 22; Present Status of Employers' Liability in the United States, by S. D. Fessenden, No. 31; Mutual Relief and Benefit Associations in the Printing Trade in the United States, No. 19; Brotherhood Relief and Insurance of Railway Employees, by E. R. Johnson, No. 17.

Most of the Bulletins of the Bureau of Labor may still be obtained free on addressing the United States Commissioner of Labor, Washington, D. C.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

See also periodical indexes.

Dividend to Labor, N. P. Gilman. A study of Employer's Welfare Institutions.

Encyclopedia of Social Reform, W. D. P. Bliss. See Bismarck and Social Reform, State and Compulsory Insurance, Old Age Pensions.

Workingmen's Insurance in Germany, F. Kesner, *North American Review*, 179:439-445, September, 1904.

Industrial Assurance from a German Point of View, *Independent*, 55: 1361, June 4, '03.

Old Age Insurance, *Review of Reviews*, 27: 84-5, January, '03.

Insurance Against Enforced Idleness, *American Journal of Sociology*, 8:719-20, March, '03.

New Zealand Old Age Pensions, *Independent*, 55:2652, November 5, '03.

Old Age Pensions, E. E. Hale, *Cosmopolitan*, 35:168-72, June, '03.

Railway Provident Institutions, Max Riebenack, National Civic Federation.

Publications of American Institute of Social Science, 287 Fourth Ave., New York.

Publications of Welfare Department of National Civic Federation, 281 Fourth Ave., New York.

WHAT TO DO

Make a personal study of compulsory insurance and related topics.

Request local libraries to make generally

known the material they can offer on these topics.

Try to get some clubs or societies to discuss provision for workingmen and others against the possibilities of accident, sickness, old age and death.

Make an investigation of the probable resources of those in your community who are not "insured" in some fashion.

Forward copies of reports, pamphlets, clippings, etc., upon insurance and pension topics to Bureau of Civic Coöperation, 5711 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago.

Report to above address names of all clubs, churches, firms, and individuals discussing or organizing any form of insurance.

Send also to above address arguments for or against, questions raised, etc., as an aid to the further study of these topics.

If you wish to be of further service send your name to the above address.

MASSACHUSETTS CIVIC LEAGUE

The Massachusetts Civic League has been quite active of late in directing the attention of the people of that commonwealth toward certain reforms in state and local affairs. In April, 1904, it formed the Massachusetts Conference of Town and Village Betterment, the first organization of its kind in the country, bringing together delegates from local betterment societies in all parts of the state to combine their endeavors in a concerted action that would count for something. Following the plan adopted, this organization, in conjunction with the league, is sending out leaflets, preparing lantern slides, and making out lists of lectures on subjects pertinent to the objects of the conference. Prizes are offered for photographic civic contributions, and a general agitation has been instituted to abate certain nuisances, such as advertising billboards, the rights of the public on this and other matters being made plain. United action has been begun upon the vagrancy or tramp question, as well as in the matter of child labor and education.

A sociological standpoint is taken as the basis of many of the reforms. An example of the practical activity of the league is the public playground which it has maintained in Boston since 1900, a fact which has stimulated the friends of child study, not only in Massachusetts, but throughout the entire country, to a more nearly genuine and practical work in juvenile training.

Most efficient work has been done by the secretary—Mr. E. T. Hartman—part of whose duty is to examine all bills introduced at the state house, considering carefully all that have reference to matters within the activity of the league. The assistance of experts is enlisted in all movements for civic betterment, and reforms are not only recommended, but on their passage are followed up and studied with a view to further improvement.

The league has already secured from the Massachusetts state legislature the passage of some excellent bills. One provides for a state forestry, another protects women and children in retail stores from overwork during the Christmas holidays, and a third limits the height of buildings in residence districts to eighty feet. These indicate sufficiently the variety of the league's interests. The extent of its influence may be conceived when it is stated that there are, in Massachusetts, 170 village improvement societies, 10 arts and crafts societies, 48 women's clubs, 160 civic clubs, and 251 granges.

For the purpose of securing more intimate relations with these and effecting a more practical coöperation the league has established four sub-committees, on social centers, out-door art, public buildings, and village industries.

MUNICIPAL LEAGUES AND POLITICS

The experience of the Municipal League of Los Angeles, Cal., as told in its report for the last quarter of the year 1904 indicates the growing importance of nonpartisan improvement associations in municipal politics. The purpose of this organization is not primarily political. It seeks only an improvement in municipal affairs and usually conducts its campaign by revealing public evils and suggesting remedies, by gathering data, and in short, by seeking to mould public opinion. Much

of this work is highly effective but at times it is not enough.

Last autumn the league opposed the candidacy of a certain street superintendent on the ground of incompetency. Circulars sent to party leaders had no effect and the man was renominated. Thereupon the league took off its coat and went to work to secure the nomination of an efficient man by the opposing party. These efforts were successful and a good candidate was put up. In the face of a normal majority the league made a thorough campaign and elected its man—certainly another triumph for nonpartisan, business ideals in municipal politics. In a like way a nonpartisan school board was secured, more essential perhaps, than a nonpartisan and efficient street superintendent.

As the league points out in its report, the benefits of these victories are greater than at first appear. It is a deterrent that the municipal league is most effective. Although it is not desirable to engage continually in party politics it is very desirable to be able to do so with good results when occasion demands. The party politician will not put up a disreputable candidate when he knows that the opposition aided by a nonpartisan league can nominate and elect a candidate in spite of him. It is to his interest and the interest of his party to put up acceptable candidates for office.

There is a notable increase in the interest paid to the beautifying of city yards. People are beginning to realize the possibilities of a few square feet of ground even in crowded tenement districts. Beautiful results may be attained with a very small expenditure of time and money, and the work required soon becomes a pleasure rather than a duty.

The latest example of the "yard movement" that has attracted our attention is from Dayton, Ohio. The Outdoor Improvement Association of the Bethel Presbyterian Mission of that city offered last summer, prizes for the general appearance of yards about homes, for vines, and for vegetables. The awards were recently made and are interesting in that they illustrate the large results which may come from very inconsiderable beginnings. A few cents worth of seed may mean a whole array of flowers and vegetables, and an incalculable amount of health and pleasant recreation.

FROM THE FIELD

The many functions assumed by the English municipality receive a novel reinforcement from Yarmouth, England. The town council of that city is running a music hall and makes it a paying venture. The profits are applied to relieve the taxes. At Margate, also, the municipality makes money out of public entertainments. The Municipal Fetes Committee last year borrowed £200 from the corporation. Not only has this sum recently been repaid but the city has in addition been enriched by a profit of £1,000.

Among the state federations of women's clubs it is noted that South Carolina has created an arts and crafts department, for the purpose of encouraging women's home industries especially in rural regions; and that Alabama seeks betterment of rural schools through enactment of local school taxes and membership of women on school boards.

The South Park Improvement Association of Chicago has hit upon a good device to encourage the planting of trees. It offers three prizes of $50, $20, and $10, respectively to those school children within a prescribed district who can prove that they have induced the planting of the greatest number of trees between November 1, 1904, and November 30, 1905. There are certain conditions as to the manner and condition of the planting and certification to that effect.

The Buena Park Citizens Association of Chicago in its report for 1904, the first year of its existence, displays both prosperity and activity. It has received over $2,000 and has a balance after varied expenditures of $400. These expenditures include payments for the sprinkling of streets, the removal of weeds, rubbish, etc., the repairing of streets, painting of lamp posts and hydrants, and kindred matters. The Association has also used its influence to secure intercepting sewers and the expenditure by property owners of money for resurfacing roadways. Its efforts are eminently practical although its end is not materialistic only, but esthetic.

January 15-20 was municipal week at the People's Institute, New York. In coöperation with the National Municipal League the Institute provided for addresses upon four aspects of municipal improvement work: the ethical side, the administrative side, the improvement side, and that of concrete civic achievements. There were several speakers of prominence including Charles Sprague Smith, Director of the People's Institute, Charles J. Bonaparte, President of the National Municipal League. Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Secretary of the National Municipal League, and the Hon. William McAdoo, Police Commissioner of New York.

Benjamin Franklin in his will left $5,000 which was to be invested and allowed to accumulate for a century. At the end of this time the fund was to be used for the benefit of apprentices in the city of Boston. When the real estate originaly purchased by the Franklin bequest was sold it was found that there was $270,000 to expend. Mr. Carnegie offered to add twice this amount for the establishment of an institution for industrial training and it is understood that the offer has been accepted.

Current Events Programs and News Summary

CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS

DOMESTIC

Roll-call: Suggestive Plans for the use of next Summer's vacation.

Papers: (a) Impeachment cases in the United States (apropos proceedings against Judge Swayne); (b) What is the Beef Trust? (c) Report on the Forestry Congress (Washington, Jan. 5-6); (d) New Blood in the United States Senate (character sketches of new senators taking seats, March 4); (e) Report on United Mine Workers Convention (Indianapolis, Jan. 16); (f) Santo Domingo and the Monroe Doctrine; (g) Theodore Thomas and his Life Work in Music.

Address: The Evolution of the Lobbyist.

Readings: (a) From Immigration: A Field Neglected by the Scholar, Jane Addams, *Commons,* January; (b) From "The Americans," by Hugo Münsterberg; (c) From Thoreau's Journal, II, *Atlantic Monthly,* February; (d) From Chicago's New Park Service, Henry G. Foreman, *Century,* February; (e) From What is a Lynching? Ray Stannard Baker, *McClure's,* January and February.

Discussion: The Tactics of Frenzied Finance.

FOREIGN

Roll-call: Answered by Opinions Concerning Reform Proposals in Russia.

Paper: (a) Comparison of conditions precedent to the French Revolution with conditions in Russia today; (b) The coal strike in Germany; (c) Great Britain's Religious Revivals; (d) Review of article on Compulsory Insurance, I. M. Rubinow, THE CHAUTAUQUAN, March; (e) Character Sketch of the late Louise Michel. revolutionist.

Oration: The Right of Petition.

Readings: (a) From Impressions of the German Emperor, Andrew D. White, *Century,* February; (b) From Canada's Attitude Toward Us, W. S. Harwood, *World's Work,* February; (c) From The Real Australia, Buriss Graham, *Booklovers,* February; (d) From Korea and the Korean Emperor, W. F. Sands, *Century,* February; (e) From Making a Treaty with Menelink, Robert P. Skinner, *World's Work,* February; (f) From Religion and Politics in a French Village, Prof. Firmir Connort, *Homiletic Review,* February.

Debate: Is Killing in War more Justifiable than Political Assassination?

War Report: Summary of Progress of Russo-Japanese War during the month.

NEWS SUMMARY

DOMESTIC

January 1.—Agents of Chicago packers are arrested in Montana charged with conspiracy to fix meat prices.

2.—Denver repeaters confess. Republicans claim that 18,000 spurious ballots were cast for Adams. Application is made at Fall River, Mass., for a receiver for the Davis cotton mills.

3.—An Oregon land agent declares he gave Senator Mitchell $2,000 to use his influence to expedite land claims. Governor Pennypacker asks the Pennsylvania legislature to enact a law permitting the suppression of some newspapers as common nuisances.

4.—Attorney-General Moody makes an argument in the United States supreme court against the beef trust.

5.—President Roosevelt addresses the American forestry congress in Washington.

6.—The forestry congress in Washington adjourns after adopting resolutions urging stringent measures for the preservation of timber on public lands.

7.—At a conference between President Roosevelt and Republican leaders in congress it is decided to postpone tariff revision until fall, and not to call an extra session in the spring. The Colorado legislature in joint session canvasses the returns of the state election and declares Adams elected governor. Charles R. Jones is elected chairman of the Prohibition national committee to succeed O. W. Stewart.

9.—Attorney-General Moody concludes his argument against the beef trust.

10.—A bomb is exploded near the statue of Frederick the Great in Washington, but no harm is done. The majority of the select committee of the House agrees on articles of impeachment against Judge Swayne. Alva Adams is inaugurated governor of Colorado.

11.—Frank P. Flint is elected United States senator in California to succeed Senator Bard. Senator Bate of Tennessee is reëlected.

12.—Colorado contest for governor is formally opened and the legislature is asked to open ballot boxes in suspected precincts. James D. Yeomans is nominated by the president to be interstate commerce commissioner.

13.—Representative Vespasian Warner of Illinois is appointed commissioner of pensions. Henry Phipps gives a fund of $1,000,000 for model tenement houses in New York.

14.—Panama canal dockmen and other laborers at San Christobel strike for higher wages. Dynamiter who attempted to wreck the statue of Frederick the Great is arrested.

15.—William Williams, commissioner of immigration in New York, resigns. Report of the Philippine commission is received by the president.

16.—George S. Nixon of Nevada will be United States senator from that state. Thomas H. Carter is elected senator from Montana. Senator Burton of Kansas is granted a new trial by the United States supreme court on technical grounds. Bribery charges are made against T. X. Niedringhaus, Republican candidate for senator from Missouri. Annual convention of United Mine Workers meets in Indianapolis.

17.—Many senators are elected, among whom are J. C. Burrows in Michigan, George Sutherland in Utah, E. J. Burkett in Nebraska, A. J. Beveridge and James A. Hemenway in Indiana, Morgan G. Bulkeley in Connecticut, and Philander C. Knox in Pennsylvania. Andew Carnegie offers to make good the losses of poor depositors in the Oberlin bank wrecked by Mrs. Chadwick.

18.—Fall River cotton mill strike is settled at a conference brought about by Governor Douglas. Committee which is to decide the gubernatorial contest of Colorado meets in Denver.

19.—Secretary Hay receives assurance from the powers guaranteeing the integrity of China at the close of the war. The United Mine Workers of America reject a proposition to endorse socialism.

20.—Dr. James B. Angell, president of the University of Michigan, offers his resignation. President Roosevelt appoints Governor Brodie of Arizona assistant chief of the record and pension division of the war department.

21.—William J. Bryan calls on President Roosevelt and announces his approval of proposed railroad rate legislation. Four Americans are killed by Yaqui Indians in the mountains of Mexico.

23.—Governor La Follette of Wisconsin is nominated for United States senator on the first ballot.

24.—Trustees of George Peabody educational fund appropriate $1,000,000 to the George Peabody school for teachers in Nashville, Tenn.

25.—Governor La Follette of Wisconsin accepts election as United States senator. Introduction of evidence in the Smoot inquiry is brought to a close. A blizzard paralyzes traffic in eastern cities.

26.—Senate passes a bill transferring a portion of Yosemite National Park to the Sierra forest reserve. Democrats in the House announce their support of the president in his railway rate regulation projects.

27.—Samuel H. Piles is elected United States senator from Oregon. The Senate, organized as a court of impeachment, takes steps to consider the charges against Judge Swayne of Florida.

30.—President Roosevelt, in a speech delivered at Philadelphia, advocates increased governmental supervision of large businesses, and particularly advocates governmental regulation of railroad rates.

31.—It is said that the Rockefeller-Harriman railroad interests have gained control of the Vanderbilt system; the combined mileage of the united roads is over 40,000 miles.

FOREIGN

January 1.—The Japanese capture two more forts at Port Arthur.

2.—General Stoessel in order to prevent useless sacrifice of life opens negotiations with General Nogi for the surrender of Port Arthur. It is said that the terms set by General Nogi have been accepted. Four Russian destroyers, escaped from Port Arthur, disarm at Chefoo.

3.—Japanese take possession of Port Arthur. The terms of surrender permit Russian officers to return home on parole. The remainder of the Russian forces, estimated at 20,000 men, will be taken to Japan.

4.—Japanese find 20,000 sick and 5,000 able soldiers in Port Arthur. A new cabinet is formed in Roumania.

5.—It is rumored that the flagship of Admiral Rojestvensky struck a rock off Madagascar and sank.

6.—The reported loss of the Russian flagship is denied at St. Petersburg. The Russians are heavily bombarding Oyama's lines along the Shakhe River. Four members of the Danish cabinet resign because of a disagreement over the military situation.

7.—The Japanese emperor issues a proclamation thanking General Nogi and his army for their successes.

8.—The transfer of Russian prisoners at Port Arthur is completed, 878 officers and 23,491 men being surrendered. The Persian government agrees to pay an indemnity of $30,000 for the murder of Benjamin W. Labaree, an American missionary.

9.—China orders the cancellation of the Hankow-Canton railway bonds originally an American concession.

10.—French chamber of deputies elects Paul Doumer president of that body to succeed M. Brisson. Treaty of peace and amity between Chili and Bolivia is signed.

11.—More that 70,000 German coal miners go on a strike.

12.—Russia issues a circular to the powers calling attention to the violation of Chinese neutrality. It is decided that all testimony in the Dogger Bank inquiry shall be taken publicly, but deliberations shall be held in secret.

13.—Cossack raiders attacking points along the railroad in Manchuria are repulsed. A new Danish ministry is formed. German losses in conflict with natives in South Africa are heavy.

14.—A vote of confidence in the Combes ministry passes the French chamber of deputies by but ten votes. The site for the palace of peace at The Hague is selected.

15.—An attempt is made at Moscow to assassinate the ex-chief of police of that city. Japanese accuse Russians of violating China's neutrality in making a raid through neutral territory.

17.—Coal strike in Germany spreads to 187 mines. New Danish cabinet proposes universal suffrage in communal affairs.

18.—Strikes in St. Petersburg are spreading; 58,000 workmen are now out. The French ministry resigns.

19.—Tzar Nicholas comes near being hit by grapeshot in discharge from a battery firing a salute. Italy emancipates the slaves in her East African colonies.

20.—Strike in St. Petersburg grows. Workmen plan to go *en masse* to White Palace to present petition to the Tzar enumerating their grievances. The Balkan committee with James Bryce as chairman, sends memorial to President Roosevelt asking his support of Great Britain's plans for reform in Macedonia.

21.—Authorities in St. Petersburg prepare to quell the strikers' demonstration by force of arms. President Loubet asks M. Rouvier to form a new cabinet. Protocol is signed at Santo Domingo by which the United States agrees to preserve order and assume charge of the finances of the Dominican republic though guaranteeing its integrity.

22.—Workmen in St. Petersburg, who, under the leadership of Father Gopon attempt to present a petition to the Tzar are mercilessly shot down by the troops; several hundred are killed and many wounded. M. Rouvier forms his cabinet.

23.—St. Petersburg continues in a state of panic though there are few new casualties. The strike spreads to Moscow and other large Russian cities. Admiral Kamimura leaves Tokio to rejoin his fleet.

24.—Conflicts between troops and workmen are renewed in St. Petersburg. There are disturbances in many of the Russian cities par-

ticularly in Finland and Russian Poland. The strike in Moscow spreads. Maxim Gorky and other liberal leaders are said to have been imprisoned.

25.—Bloodshed continues in Moscow and Helsingfors. Proclamation issued in St. Petersburg on authority of the Tzar urges strikers to return to work.

26.—Troops fire on strikers in Libau and Moscow. St. Petersburg is quiet. Russian army crosess the Hun River and engages the Japanese in battle. A new revolution is reported in Santo Domingo.

27.—Kuropatkin is said to be gaining in fierce battle along the Hun River. Members of zemstvos that protested against the St. Petersburg massacre are arrested by order of General Trepoff, comanding in St. Petersburg.

28.—Bread riots take place in Libau. Both the Russians and Japanese claim success in engagement along the Shakhe River.

29.—British vice-consul at Warsaw is seriously injured by riotous hussars. Kuropatkin's advance is repulsed; Russians admit Japanese victory.

30.—Troops at Riga butcher strikers. Riots in Warsaw becomes more serious.

31.—The Japanese report that they have weakened the Russian position along the Shakhe River.

OBITUARY

January 4.—Theodore Thomas in Chicago.

5.—Henry V. Poor in Boston.

8.—Ex-Governor Lloyd Lowndes of Maryland.

9.—Louise Michel, in Marseilles.

Chautauqua Spare Minute Course

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, complete in the pages of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for 1904-05 beginning with September, has been arranged to meet the demand for a short course of systematic reading in place of haphazard, hit or miss reading to no purpose. The course consists of the seven leading serial topics entitled, "Social Progress in Europe," "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany," "German Master Musicians," "Civic Lessons from Europe," "Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare," "How the American Boy is Educated," and "Nature Study" (the last named beginning in October).

Additional articles and the regular departments of the magazine relate to features of the course and constitute important sidelights upon it. "Highways and Byways" editorial comment on the current events with special reference to the serial topics, "Survey of Civic Betterment," "Talk About Books," "News Summary," programs, helps and hints, and special supplementary articles represent a useful and entertaining variety.

RECOGNITION FROM CHAUTAUQUA

In the last magazine of the year containing Spare Minute Course material, blanks will be printed upon the filling out of which a Spare Minute Course Certificate will be awarded by Chautauqua Institution.

SPARE MINUTE PROGRAMS

The program suggestions outlined under this heading will be based upon features of the "Social Progress Year" of topics as presented from month to month in this magazine. It is better to choose a few program suggestions and carry them out well than to try to do too much at a single session.

Summary: Epitomize article on Recent Social Conditions in Romance Countries, by F. A. Ogg, in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for March.

Discussion: Differences between the genius of French, Slav, and Anglo Saxon peoples for government.

Character Sketches: (a) President Loubet of France; (b) King Victor Emmanuel III, of Italy; (c) King Alphonso XIII of Spain.

Readings: (a) From "The Americans," by Hugo Münsterberg; (b) From Weimar, the Athens of Germany, R. W. Deering, THE CHAUTAUQUAN for March; (c) From The Working of the United States Bureau of Labor, in Bulletin of the Bureau of Labor, September, 1904.

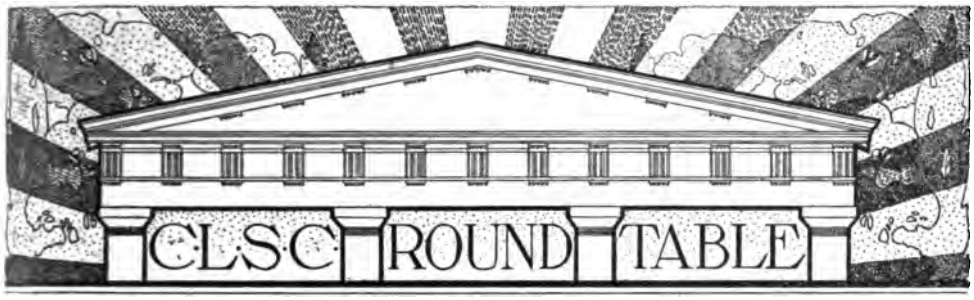
Review: Article on Compulsory Insurance, by I. M. Rubinow, THE CHAUTAUQUAN, March.

Papers: (a) Industrial Insurance in the United States; (b) The Law of Averages in Life, Accident and Sick Benefit Insurance (secure some insurance man to present this topic); (c) How to Study Trees in Winter; (d) What constitutes Press Libel? (impress a newspaper man to explain).

Address: The High School as the People's College.

Additional program material may be found in "Current Events Programs," "Suggestive Programs for Local Circles," "The Travel Club," etc., on other pages of this issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Correspondence or inquiries may be addressed to the Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, Chautauqua, New York.



COUNSELORS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE

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MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, Executive Secretary.

A RETROSPECT

The first of March with its suggestions of spring brings to some of us a sense of discouragement over the shortcomings of our winter's work. We had in the enthusiasm of our autumn beginnings fancied that spring would find us far ahead of our fall achievements. We expected to be conscious of our growth, to have made strides intellectually. But the busy weeks of October, the Christmas preparations, a touch of grippe, perhaps, have exacted their share of our time and strength, and here at length we are, our winter's progress such a pitifully meagre affair. Now the first step in exorcising this demon of discouragement is undoubtedly a straight look at the facts. 1. We deluded ourselves at the outset. The young gymnast who expects to develop his muscle in twenty-four hours, soon finds his mistake, and every Chautauquan must learn to "See life steadily and to see it whole." 2. We are behind with our reading. This alone is the least possible excuse for discouragement. A definite plan to cover the next three months, perseverance, and the game is won! 3. We underrate some of the results already gained. We think that because details slip from our memories that all is lost. We can't remember a single date in the French Revolution except 1789 and are discouraged; but we forget that the great significance of it all—oppressed people, corrupt nobility, absence of popular education—came quickly to our minds as we watched recent developments in Russia. We have forgotten the statistics of Italy's national resources but we understand why her people are flocking to the western world and we realize that she has had only thirty years of life as a nation. Haven't we gained something from the winter? Sympathy for our brothers working away in every corner of the world on the old problem of human liberty? A consciousness that every true act in our lives is a contribution to the great sum of brave human deeds which make up the world's progress?

"This is the true joy in life, the being used for a purpose recognized by yourself as a mighty one, the being thoroughly worn out before you are thrown on the scrap heap, the being a force of Nature instead of a feverish, selfish little clod of ailments and grievances, complaining that the world will not devote itself to making you happy."

Many of us have an idea that what we do intellectually must be wrought out by the midnight lamp in winter. But summer is the time when we may build on the winter's background. Select the subject that most interests you and follow it out. Have a novel of Victor Hugo's at hand where you can pick it up in leisure moments or a copy of "Debit and Credit," or the alluring "Elizabeth and Her German Garden," or Schiller's "Lyrics," or some of the great stories of English social progress. Many suggestions have been given in the Round Table. Psychologists tell us that we strengthen an impression by approaching a subject from different

points of view. Indeed if you should reread some of the required readings you would find that they started you out again on new trains of thought. Test the experience for yourself, but let no temporary weariness of the spirit tempt you to sell your Chautauqua birthright and drop back into the "haphazard" habit.

TO THE 1905'S

The class is making progress with its arrangements for graduation this summer and hopes for a large rally at Chautauqua. Letters indicate that the 1905's are as diligent in their hope of winning seals for their diplomas as their predecessors. The year's reading is not a difficult matter and many readers testify to the value of the work. However, no 1905 who is struggling against adverse conditions need feel that seals are essential to his standing and happiness as a Chautauquan. If the course be faithfully read and the books and required readings in THE CHAUTAUQUAN duly reported, the diploma will be honorably earned. There are still five months before Recognition Day, a chance for even the most belated 1905 to retrieve the past. Don't forget that because you may not "grasp" all you "reach" for, a certain amount of possession ought to be yours. Reach far enough ahead so that you may be sure of the diploma!

BROWNING'S POEMS FOR THE 1905'S

The members of 1905, the Browning Class, who have become familiar with the poems suggested in the January CHAUTAUQUAN will doubtless be in a mood to try others. One poem a week, especially if you read each one six times, from March first to June first will enable you to know quite familiarly the following:

Hervé Riel.
Incident of the French Camp.
The Patriot.
The Boy and the Angel.
One Way of Love.
Evelyn Hope.
The Last Ride Together.
An Epistle.
Christmas Eve.
Rabbi Ben Ezra.
The Guardian Angel.
Instans Tyrannus.
Prospice.

OUR SECOND MOTTO

An illustration of the first C. L. S. C. motto as designed by the Prang Art Company, was given in last month's Round Table with suggestions as to how these mottoes can be secured. In connection with the illustration showing the second motto it may be of interest to the new members of the Circle to know when and how these mottoes were selected. The following paragraph from Chancellor Vincent's famous address at the inauguration of the C. L. S. C. in 1878 tells the story:

I met a friend in Europe a few weeks ago, who said to me as I described this Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, "I will present to your Circle as elegant a banner as I can procure in Europe. I will have the silk woven for it in France. I will have the design printed upon it in Italy." And we selected, after consultation, the motto for our banner,—the motto, the watchword of our Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Society. It was as follows: WE STUDY THE WORD AND THE WORKS OF GOD. And last year, when my venerable friend Dr. Vail came into this tent and

THE SECOND C. L. S. C MOTTO

sitting down here, in the competitive examination, picked up the fifty questions, and wrote his answers to them, as he passed in his examination papers to me I shall never forget how he looked, and how his voice trembled as he bade me good-by, not knowing that he should ever return; he said to me (and I have taken this as the second motto for the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle), LET US KEEP OUR HEAVENLY FATHER IN THE MIDST.

In our studies in the school that is to be, let us keep the thought of our Father in the midst of nature, the thought of our Father in the midst of literature, and the thought of our Father in every-day life.

ONE OF OUR AUTHORS

Professor Richard Hochdoerfer, the author of "Studies in German Literature" which we take up with our April readings, is a native of Germany, a graduate of Leipsic University, and now Professor of Modern Languages in Wittenberg College, Springfield, Ohio. He has gained a somewhat varied experience of American university life, since he took his doctor's degree at Harvard in 1888, and in 1899 was one of the summer staff of lecturers at the University of Chicago, taking for his subject "The Recent German Drama." His interest in modern manifestations of the dramatic art in Germany is shown in a very illuminating paper discussing Hauptmann's "The Weavers" which he presented at the meeting of the Modern Language Association of Ohio, in 1900.

RICHARD HOCHDOERFER

GOOD NEWS FOR THE 1904'S

All members of 1904 will welcome the announcement from their treasurer, Mrs. House, that the funds subscribed last summer to complete the class payment toward their room in Alumni Hall, have been duly paid in, and the class is free from debt. A small balance in the treasury is also reported. The attendance of every class at Chautauqua the year after graduation is usually quite small, hence the prompt and enthusiastic action of the 1904's in thus meeting all their obligations is especially to be commended. It secures to every member who visits Chautauqua in the future, assured welcome to the good fellow-ship of Alumni Hall.

A HERO OF PEACE

Few lives have been filled with more beneficent service to mankind than that of Pasteur, and it is a satisfaction to realize that his own countrymen were quick to appreciate his great gifts and to express their gratitude during his lifetime.

The splendidly equipped Pasteur Institute in Paris, the money for which was raised by popular subscription during Pasteur's lifetime, is an impressive example of that impulsive generosity which is one of the finest traits of the French nation. But France has not been willing to rest satisfied even with this notable expression of her devotion to Pasteur.

In various parts of the country monuments to his memory have already been erected, the latest of them, shown in our illustration, having been unveiled last July in the Place de Breteuil in Paris. This monument, which was designed by the French sculptor Falguière in collaboration with the architect Girault, represents the great scientist in an attitude of thoughtful calm, pondering some discovery of benefit to mankind. The face of the stone bears the simple inscription "Pasteur 1822-1895." Beneath the inscription is a figure of a woman, "Humanity," imploring his aid in behalf of the child which leans against her. On the other three sides are rural scenes—a shepherd playing his pipe, with his sheep browsing about him, a group of splendid cattle with their "bouvier," etc., all suggestive of blessings to the beasts

of the field and their owners, secured by the scientist's labors.

The unveiling of this monument, which was erected by international subscription,

PASTEUR MONUMENT ERECTED IN PARIS

The several panels symbolize the toilers of the field enjoying the benefits arising from Pasteur's discoveries.

was a notable occasion. It was formally presented to the city of Paris and accepted by the President of the Municipal Council, in the presence of a distinguished audience including President Loubet, Mme. Pasteur, and many famous scientists and scholars. The addresses given were by representatives of the Academy of Science, Academy of Medicine and of foreign organizations. Such a life as that of Pasteur belongs to the whole world. It is a striking example of the "spirit of human brotherhood put into practice."

GOETHE AND SCHILLER BIBLIOGRAPHY

C. L. S. C. members who have access to libraries or who wish to purchase material relating to Goethe and Schiller, to add to their libraries, will find the following works valuable:

Goethe's Autobiography, Bohn Library.
"Wilhelm Meister's Apprenticeship and Travels," trans. by Carlyle.
Maxims and Reflections of Goethe.
Eckermann, "Conversations with Goethe," Bohn Library.
Grimm, H., "The Life and Times of Goethe."
Sime, J., "The Life of Goethe," Great Writers Series.
Boyesen, H. H., "Essays on German Literature."
Boyesen, H. H., "Goethe and Schiller." Including a commentary on Goethe's Faust.
Francke, K., "German Literature as Determined by Social Forces."
Emerson, "Representative Men," Chapter on Goethe.
Calvert, G. H., translator, Correspondence between Schiller and Goethe.
Carlyle, T., Essays on Schiller and Goethe.
Nevinson, H. W., "Life of Schiller."

OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

"We Study the Word and the Works of God." "Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst." "Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY—May 18.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR APRIL

MARCH 31-APRIL 7—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Social Progress in Europe.

Required Book: Studies in German Literature, Chapters I and II. Introduction and "Lessing."

APRIL 7-14—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Social Progress in Europe. Reread.

Required Book: Studies in German Literature, Chapter III. Lessing's Nathan the Wise.

APRIL 14-21—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Weimar, the Athens of Germany.

Required Book: Studies in German Literature, Chapter IV. Goethe's Hermann and Dorothea.

APRIL 21-28—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: German Master Musicians. Beethoven Part II.

Required Book: Studies in German Literature, Goethe's Faust.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

So great a personality as that of Goethe can only be appreciated by prolonged reading and study. Those who can supplement Professor Hochdoerfer's excellent chapters in our "Studies in German Literature" will find especially helpful Professor H. H. Boyesen's little volume entitled "Goethe and Schiller." In view of our reading journey article on Weimar, selections from Schiller's beautiful "Hymn to Joy" are given in the Library Shelf, though further study of the poet will be deferred until next month. The "Hymn to Joy" is especially fitting in connection with our study of Beethoven whose immortal Ninth Symphony includes a choral setting of the hymn.

MARCH 31-APRIL 7—

Quiz on Chapter I of "Studies in German Literature."

Paper: The Theater in Germany and its Influence (see "German Life in Town and Country," Dawson; People's Theater in Berlin, *Contemporary Review*, 77:870, June, 1900).

Discussion: What characteristics of German life of that period are portrayed in "Minna von Barnhelm?"

Scenes from the play given in costume by members of the Circle.

Roll-call: Answered by reports on paragraphs in Highways and Byways.

Pronunciation Match on proper names in the required reading for this month.

APRIL 7-14—

Review of Social Progress article.

Paper: Thirty Years of Progress in Italy (see *World's Work* 6:3860, Sept., '03; *Century Magazine* 68:155, May, '04).

Reading: Selection from "Makers of Modern Italy" describing Garibaldi's entrance into Rome (This will be found in one of the C. L. S. C. books entitled "Men and Cities of Italy;" also in a small volume published separately under the title "Makers of Modern Italy.")

Review of Article: "What Emigation May Mean to Italy," *Review of Reviews*, 30: 109-11, July, '04.

Roll-call: Distinguished literary men of other countries who were contemporary with Lessing showing the state of progress in social and religious ideas in other countries at the time. (See histories of literature, encyclopedias, social life, etc.)

Discussion of "Nathan the Wise:" (1) Its historical allusions: (2) its finest passages. (3) Is glaring intolerance to be found in the present day in Germany? Russia? France? America? Give instances.

APRIL 14-21—

Roll-call: Quotations regarding Goethe's character and influence.

Reading: Selection from Bayard Taylor's article on Schiller at Weimar (see bibliography). Also reading of Schiller's "Hymn to Joy" (see The Library Shelf).

Music: Piano duet—Beethoven's setting of the "Hymn to Joy" from the Ninth Symphony. (See, for prices of music, The Library Shelf.)

Paper: Answers to the following questions: Why is Goethe given such a high rank among the world's great thinkers? What departments of knowledge did he investigate? How did his mental development compare with that of men around him? How did he bear himself toward the problems of the universe, etc.

Reading: "The Erl King," Goethe. This may also be sung if the music is available.

Review of "Wilhelm Meister," with reading of selections, showing the conditions of German society which it reflected.

Discussion: What pictures of German life and suggestions of the outside world appear in "Hermann and Dorothea?"

Reading: Selections from "Thackeray in Weimar" (see bibliography). Also brief account of "The Sorrows of Werther" with reading of Thackeray's poem (see The Library Shelf).

Discusion: Resolved that Goethe's lack of patriotism at the time of the Napoleonic wars was not justified. (See Boyesen, Kuno Francke, and other commentators on Goethe.)

APRIL 21-28—

A Study of "Faust"—Part I. Bayard Taylor's translation of the poem is recommended. Professor Deering suggests the following selections as being of special interest to the reader. The Prologue in Heaven. Scene I. The opening monologue by Faust and the scene with the Earth-Spirit. The Easter Promenade. Scene IV. In Faust's Study. Scene V. In Auerbach's Cellar. Scene VII and following: The Story of Margaret, omitting Scene XXII. Some member of the Circle or other good reader may be invited to read the selections and the leader may intersperse comments and questions. Boyesen in his "Goethe and Schiller" has an excellent commentary on the poem.

Roll-call: Quotations from "Faust." (See "Studies in German Literature," THE CHAUTAUQUAN 35:66-75, April, 1902; also available works on German literature: see bibliography in Round Table.)

THE TRAVEL CLUB

The central interest of Weimar is, of course, to be found in the lives of Goethe and Schiller. In the Round Table a bibliography of works relating to these two poets is given. Special attention is called here to the volume by H. H. Boyesen which in small compass presents a very illuminating account of the two men. Kuno Francke's "German Literature as Determined by Social Forces" is also an important work which the members of the club will do well to consult in forming their estimates of Goethe's character and influence.

FIRST WEEK—

Roll-call: Brief reports on incidents and influences of Goethe's early life up to the time of his residence in Weimar. These should be assigned beforehand and called for in chronological order (see Boyesen's "Goethe and Schiller").

Brief account of "The Sorrows of Werther" with reading of Thackeray's poem on Werther (see The Library Shelf).

Paper: Goethe's life from 1776 to the time of the publication of "Wilhelm Meister" in 1796.

Review of "Wilhelm Meister" with reading of selections showing the conditions of German society which it reflected.

Brief report on Freytag's "Debit and Credit" (mentioned in last month's Travel Club program) showing how German society half a century later had changed. Boyesen calls this book "the proper complement to Wilhelm Meister."

Reading: Goethe's "Hermann and Dorothea." The story with selections. The characters may be assigned to different members of the club.

Discussion: Resolved that Goethe's lack of patriotism at the time of the Napoleonic Wars was not justified (see Boyesen, Kuno Francke, and other works on Goethe).

SECOND WEEK—

Paper: German women as depicted in Goethe's works.

A study of "Faust"—Part I. Bayard Taylor's translation of the poem is recommended. Boyesen in his "Goethe and Schiller" has an excellent commentary on the poem. Professor Deering suggests the following selections as being of special interest to the general reader: The Prologue in Heaven. Scene I. The opening monologue by Faust and the scene with the Earth-Spirit. The Easter Promenade. Scene IV. In Faust's study. Scene V. In Auerbach's cellar. Scene VII and following: The Story of Margaret, omitting Scene XXII.

Discussion: Why is Goethe given such high rank among the world's great thinkers? What departments of knowledge did he investigate? How did his mental development compare with that of the men around him? How did he bear himself toward the problems of the universe?

THIRD WEEK—

Paper: Comparison between Goethe and Schiller, in (a) their external circumstances; (b) their mental development which brought them into sympathy; (c) the differences in their temperaments and how these affected their ideals. (See all available works. Kuno Francke's "German Literature as Determined by Social Forces" is especially valuable.)

Reading: Schiller's "Hymn to Joy" (see The Library Shelf).

Music: Beethoven's setting of the "Hymn to Joy" from the Ninth Symphony.

Roll-call: Quotations fom Schiller's works showing his love of freedom.

Reading: Selection from Bayard Taylor's article "Autumn Days in Weimar," *Atlantic Monthly* (see bibliography) or from Carlyle's essay on Schiller.

Study of William Tell: An abridged study of this typical drama of Schiller's will be found in Hochdoerfer's "Studies in German literature" and in THE CHAUTAUQUAN Vol. 34: 624, March, 1902, by Dr. R. W. Deering. (See also comments upon it by Boyesen and Kuno Francke).

FOURTH WEEK—

Roll-call: Answered by historical incidents relating to the region round about Weimar.

Reading: Selections from "Thackeray in Weimar" (see *Century Magazine*, 31:920).

Paper: Liszt at Weimar (see encyclopedias and article in *Century Magazine*, 10:655, Sept., 1886).

Reading: The Story of Tannhauser (see "Wagner's Heroes," Constance Maud, or other available works on the opera).

Music: Pilgrim's chorus from Tannhauser.

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MARCH READINGS

GERMAN TOWN AND COUNTRY BYWAYS

1. A peasant who lived in the fourteenth century. A large number of folk tales have gathered about his memory attributing to him many mischievous pranks. 2. Kepler. He discovered three great laws of planetary motion. 3. A celebrated Dutch jurist and theologian. Born 1583, died 1645. He founded the science of international law. 4. Blücher. 5. January 18th which is also Coronation Day. On this day persons to be "decorated" with stars, crosses, ribbons, medals, etc., are invited to a ceremony where these honors are bestowed by the government. 6. St. John's Eve is Midsummer's Eve. Throughout the middle ages it was a great peasant festival. Bon-fires were lighted and young people leaped over the flames, threw flowers into the fire and danced and sang. These observances were probably a relic of pagan times. 7. "Heathen" meant originally "heath dweller," hence, by association, a rude and uncultivated person lacking in religion. 8. Bach.

THE GREAT ERA OF ENGLISH REFORM

1. William Wilberforce. 2. Born 1801. Entered Parliament in 1826. Succeeded to the earldom on the death of hs father in 1851. Died in 1885. Throughout his whole life, in Parliament and out, he sought to secure the passage of measures which would bring relief to the working classes. 3. Alton Locke. 4. That at Harmony, Indiana, in 1824. 5. Thomas Carlyle and John Ruskin.

THE LIBRARY SHELF.

Beethoven and Schiller who come into our study of Germany this month, each in his own way expressed the new ideal of freedom which in their day was being felt throughout Europe. Mr. Surette tells us that Beethoven "stood as a type of that growing company of thinkers who protested against intellectual and social slavery and who know no aristocracy save that of the intellect." A great critic says of Schiller "he looked at life as a continuous struggle for perfection. The victory of mind over matter, of the inner law over outer conditions, of the human will over the inevitableness of fate—this seemed to him the great problem of existence." It is not strange then that when Beethoven in his later years produced his magnificent choral symphony in D minor, one of the greatest of his works, he should find in Schiller's inspiring "Hymn to Joy" fitting words to express his thought. The following selected stanzas give an idea of the character of Schiller's hymn:*

HYMN TO JOY

Spark from the fire that gods have fed—
  Joy—thou elysian child divine,
Fire drunk, our airy footsteps tread,
  O Holy One! Thy holy shrine.
Strong custom rends us from each other,
  Thy magic all together brings,
And man in man but hails a brother,
  Wherever rest thy gentle wings.

Chorus—

Embrace ye millions—let this kiss,
  Brothers, embrace the earth below!
Yon starry worlds that shine on this,
  One common Father know!

. . . . . .

Joy is the mainspring in the whole
  Of endless Nature's calm rotation;
Joy moves the dazzling wheels that roll
  In the great timepiece of Creation;
Joy breathes on buds, and flowers they are;
  Joy beckons—suns come forth from heaven;
Joy rolls the spheres in realms afar,—
  Ne'er to thy glass, dim Wisdom, given!

Chorus—

Joyous as suns careering gay
  Along their paths on high,
March, brothers, march your dauntless way,
  As chiefs to victory!

Joy from Truth's pure and lambent fires,
  Smiles out upon the ardent speaker;
Joy leads to virtue man's desires,
  And cheers as Suffering's step grows weaker.
High from the sunny slopes of Faith,
  The gales her waving banners buoy:
And through the shattered vaults of earth,
  Lo, 'mid the choral Angels—Joy!

Chorus—

Bear this life, millions, bravely bear—
  Bear this life for the better one!
See the stars! a life is there,
  Where the reward is won.

Men like the Gods themselves may be,
  Though men may not the Gods requite;
Go soothe the pangs of misery,
  Go share the gladness with delight.
Revenge and hatred both forgot,
  Have naught but pardon for thy foe;
May sharp repentance grieve him not,
  No curse one tear of ours bestow!

Chorus—

Let all the world be peace and love,
  Cancel thy debt-book with thy brother;
For God shall judge of *us* above,
  As we shall judge each other!

. . . . . .

Firm mind to bear what fate bestows;
  Comfort to tears in sinless eyes;
Faith kept alike with friends and foes;
  Man's oath eternal to the skies;
Manhood—the thrones of kings to girth,
  Though bought by life or limb the prize;
Success to merit's honest worth;
Perdition to the brood of lies!

Chorus—

Draw closer in the holy ring;
  Swear by the wine-cup's golden river,
Swear by the stars and by their King,
  To keep this vow forever.

*The music of the entire symphony for the piano (four hands) may be secured through THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Hyde Park, Chicago, at the special price of fifty cents, or a volume containing Beethoven's sixth, seventh and eighth symphonies as well as the ninth. for seventy-five cents.

Thackeray's residence in Weimar belonged to that afterglow of literary radiance which still rests upon the town. He both knew and admired the great Goethe then in the closing years of his life. But Thackeray himself was in the full tide of his youthful exuberance and the recollections which Weimar cherishes of him are suggested by the sketches in which, for the delight of his friends, he portrayed the scenes of his daily existence in the world renowned little capital. Nor did his reverence for Goethe prevent him from commenting in his own humorous fashion upon "The Sorrows of Werther" in which the poet

had fifty years earlier given vent to the irrepressible impulses of his own youth. Thackeray belonged to a new century and he also looked out on life from a different point of view—hence his interpretation of the immortal Werther:

Werther had a love for Charlotte
Such as words could never utter:
Would you know how first he met her?
She was cutting bread and butter.

Charlotte was a married lady;
And a moral man was Werther,
And for all the wealth of Indies
Would do nothing for to hurt her.

So he sighed and pined and ogled,
And his passion boiled and bubbled,
Till he blew his silly brains out,
And no more by it was troubled.

Charlotte, having seen his body
Borne before her on a shutter,
Like a well-conducted person,
Went on cutting bread and butter.

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES

"Chautauqua represents the true and healthy relationship of literature and life to one another. Its students are scholars who are at the same time men and women deeply involved in the business of living."—Phillips Brooks.

"I feel quite stirred up over the 'battle-ship' question. I hope you are going to discuss it today," observed one of the individual readers, as the members of the Round Table took out their note books. Pendragon responded by drawing from a portfolio two packages of letters. "These," he said, indicating the larger of the two, "are reports on musical and other programs, the other contains 'battle-ship' suggestions. They are still coming and I think we shall do better to defer the discussion till our next meeting, taking up some of the other questions today. But I learn that several of the members of the Round Table have not received the printed letter recently sent to the Circles, so I will read the paragraph to which our delegate has referred:

"If you had the responsibility of spending seven millions of dollars, the price of one battleship, how would you use it so as to express most wisely the spirit of '"human brotherhood put in practice?" This is a question that we want each member of your Circle to discuss and answer for the Round Table. Let us have an itemized statement showing what part of the sum you would allot to each form of gift.

"During the past three months we have been studying many forms of human activity which come under the head of social progress, and it will be profitable to compare notes and see how wide our interests have become. Discuss this question with the members of your family, your minister, editor, local magistrate, and any one else who is working with social problems and see how many suggestions you can get. Then decide what form of activity to your mind best expresses the idea of brotherhood and at the next meeting of your Circle hand in the report. If the Circle chooses, it can combine all the reports in one which it as a Circle agrees to send. Or it can forward to us the reports from the individual members. The time is surely coming when the nations will 'beat their swords into plowshares' and the more we plan for the days of peace the more we shall help to create an atmosphere favorable to it. Give this your early attention please and let the Round Table editor have your report as soon as possible."

"Will you let me add," continued Pendragon, "by way of suggestion, that some of the replies already received are exceedingly pointed and suggestive. Others are vague and general. Vagueness of expression is apt to be the result of hazy thinking. To say, 'use it to abolish the liquor traffic' or 'to get rid of grafters,' is about equal to saying, 'use it to make everybody good.' How are you going to do it? It is our business as Chautauquans to think clearly and practically. If we don't, it shows that mentally we are in need of 'manual training' as much as some of our less fortunate neighbors whom we dream of elevating in this way! I hope you won't feel that I am caustic in these remarks. Regard them, please, as a kind of surgery administered in the interest of a better state of health! Let me suggest that you delegate to the clearest headed business man or woman of your Circle the duty of summing up and sending in the suggestions given by the members, so that full justice may be done to your ideas."

"There are so many of you, I perceive, quite ready to hold forth today that it is going to be hard to draw the line. Suppose we begin with the Vincent Circle of Toledo, Ohio."

"I wish you might all have attended our delightful 'Handel' evening," responded the delegate. "We are most fortunate in being able to secure musical talent of a high order in Toledo. Of course, in a Circle organized for literary purposes, there are presumably some persons who consider themselves not musical, but Mr. Surette's skillful way of showing the relation of music to the literature and life of the times has inspired our unmusical members with courage and every-

body found great enjoyment in the Handel program. Through the kindness of Miss McCurry we were given two selections from Bach for comparison with Handel's musical forms—but I will read the program just as it was presented and you can see for yourselves:

Bach Inventions, Nos. 8 and 11.
Two selections from Handel.
Miss Edith McCurry.
Pastoral Symphony—
Miss Minnie Dillon, Miss Lina Keith.
Aria—Rejoice greatly, O Daughter of Zion.
Mrs. Arthur Stilson.
Recitative—Then Shall the Eyes of the Blind Be Opened.
Aria—He Shall Feed His Flock.
Mrs. Robert Miller.
Come Unto Me.
Mrs. Arthur Stilson.
Aria—He was Despised.
Mrs. Robert Miller.
Violin obligato.
Miss Dillon.
Aria—I Know That My Redeemer Liveth.
Mrs. Arthur Stilson.
Violin obligato.
Miss Dillon.
Accompanist, Miss Lina C. Keith.
Largo—
Miss Minnie Dillon, Miss Agnes Dillon and Miss Vera Perkins.

"This was our second musical evening. In January we devoted our program to Mozart and Haydn. We feel that we are gaining a great deal from these studies."

"I want to add my approval also," commented a Colorado member, "although I'm an individual reader. I feel so grateful to Mr. Surette for his clear articles and I'm trying to get all I can out of them although I have only an Estey organ to work with. It's such a help to be admitted to the author's mind and enabled in a measure to think his thoughts rather than to be dependent always on one's own rather confused imagination."

"The orders for music as suggested by Mr. Surette have been coming in at a rate which shows widespread interest in the articles both on the part of individual readers and Circles," said Pendragon, as a messenger handed him a special delivery letter. "I think we are responsible for one of those orders," remarked a member from Muskogee, Indian Territory, "and we find the musical part of our studies very illuminating though we haven't given up an entire program to music. We meet twice a month and so devote one session to France and the other to the Reading Journey and to Music. It's a constant surprise and delight to us to see how one part of the course explains or throws some light upon another. At one of our January meetings we took up Mozart, using the review questions furnished by Mr. Surette. We had a supplementary paper on the artist followed by illustrations of his vocal music and one of the symphonies. We've also been discussing the 'human brotherhood' suggestions and will let you know what we think at a later meeting."

"For deep down enthusiasm coupled with hard work," said Pendragon, as he introduced the next speaker, "I think we shall have to go far to find Chautauquans who excel those at Watkins Glen, New York. Do you remember what difficulties some of us had last year with Ely's 'Evolution of Industrial Society?' These C. L. S. C. people are rereading the book together. If I'm not mistaken they are doing some pretty clear thinking on Social Progress."

"We are glad to know that you approve of our plan," replied the secretary, Mrs. Bicknell. "Our town is small, about three thousand. and the Chautauqua work is an important part of its literary life. We have not given attention to the musicians yet but shall concentrate on them a little later. We hold our meetings every Wednesday afternoon when we review the lesson, have supplementary reports, and readings, etc. But we all felt that the true Chautauqua spirit forbade our making the Circle purely a woman's affair. So once a week the two other reading Circles, the 'Franklin' and 'Madison,' meet with us in the evening. Our husbands are then present and some of the pastors and other professional men occasionally drop in and join in the reading and discussions. It is at these evening meetings that we are rereading the 'Evolution of Industrial Society' and I think it has shown us all the difference between mere reading and hard study. We think and discuss and weigh the problems involved till they seem really to have taken possession of us. It throws light all the time on the 'Social Progress' articles in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. At the risk of talking too long I must just add that the fraternal spirit among our members is very strong, and since we organized our Circle four years ago, sixty-five people have been connected with it!"

After the Round Table had expressed its approval in no uncertain manner, an Illinois member rose. "It's encouraging to me," he said, "to meet people who are trying to think. You remember what Charles Dudley Warner once said, "the general dissemination of half-digested information does not raise the level of intelligence in a community.' I was quite

depressed the other day after attending a big mass meeting in behalf of Russia to see how people will applaud the most footless and often positively dangerous sentiments just because they are uttered with a certain sort of eloquence. It was a great experience to see the presiding officer, a clear headed, thoughtful woman, quietly come to the front and with a few incisive remarks set forth the moral aspects of the question, show the really practical nature of methods based upon love instead of upon anger, and transform the audience for the moment from an irresponsible mob into a company of sensible men and women. One thinking person can exert a tremendous influence in this country. I'm glad that we as Chautauquans are clinging to this ideal."

Pendragon glanced over some newspaper clippings brought in by the post: "The first of these is from the Edelweiss Circle of Mt. Vernon, N. Y., who have been having a 'personally conducted trip through Belgium' by the pastor of the Church of the Disciples in New York City. I see they invite the Outlook Circle of their town to unite with them.

"Here are also indications of musical activity on the part of many Circles, though, of course, particulars are wanting. The Urbana, Illinois, Circle have given special attention to the 'Messiah.' Blackwell, Oklahoma, is at work on Mozart. Denton, Texas, had a comparative study of Handel and Haydn. We shall hope for further details when we can have delegates from these Circles with us. I am particularly glad to note that the Circle at Santa Clara, California, is among those paying special attention to the music studies. We should be glad if our California Circles could be represented at every meeting. I noticed that the Santa Clara Circle gave a little different 'twist' to the Social Progress studies by having a talk on Social Progress in the Orient. San Francisco and China are not so far apart and next year when China and other Oriental countries are to enter into our subjects of study, California will have peculiar advantages. Here is one more clipping that will interest you. It refers to a very able discussion by the Guthrie, Oklahoma, Circle on the Suffrage in Belgium as compared with our own. The Guthrie Chautauquans, you will remember, have done splendid work through their townspeople and the legislature in securing a Carnegie library, a picture of which was given in THE CHAUTAUQUAN last May. The Circle meets in the club room of this beautiful building with reference books easily at their command.

Now we must hear from the Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, Circle. They have not spoken as often as we should like to hear from them and we are glad to give their representative a chance."

The delegate explained that the musical side of the course had not yet entered into their programs "except the Marseillaise, for we have been devoting ourselves heart and soul to France. We've discussed the Revolution pro and con, considering the influence of feudalism upon France as contrasted with other European countries. We've read from Carlyle and the 'Tale of Two Cities' and other supplementary material. We've discovered one difference between revolutionary France and revolutionary Russia, however, and that is the atmosphere of Europe and America, which, in 1789, served to hold France back, but in these days of constitutional governments ought to be of distinct advantage to Russia. I think we've discovered also from contrasting our Social Progress studies with those on France the difference between Evolution and Revolution. The latter begins to seem less desirable and evolution tremendously interesting and effective."

"I think we've had much the same experience in our Circle commented a member from Torrington, Connecticut. We had a capital paper at one of our meeting by one of our city pastors upon 'The Results of Napoleon's Career upon Europe.' It was written for another club in our city but by the courtesy of Mr. Richards was given again. We made the occasion an open meeting and let our friends have a chance to appreciate what Chautauqua means."

Pendragon picked up a substantial volume lying on the table, saying, "You will all be interested to see what Professor Münsterberg of Harvard says of Chautauqua in his recent book 'The Americans.' This is a translation of the work 'Die Amerikaner' which he wrote for the enlightenment of his countrymen in Germany. He says, 'Those forms of popular education which are distinctly American have shown themselves to possess the most vigor. There is one name which above all others is characteristic of these native institutions. It is Chautauqua.' I confess it is a reminder to us that as Chautauquans we must keep up our standard! The entire comment is too long to read here, but you can look it over for yourselves and see the place he assigns to Chautauqua as a force in American education."

"Speaking of standards," said a lone reader from Wyoming, "wont somebody identify for

me this quotation which keeps coming to my mind. I should like to know who it was that wrote it:

'It matters not how straight the gate
How charged with punishments the scroll
I am the master of my fate
I am the captain of my soul!'

"He was a 'stout soul' as Browning would say," responded a Minnesota member, "W. E. Henley, an English literary man who has recently died, a friend and co-worker of Robert Louis Stevenson's and like him one who knew what suffering was. He has written several books of verse and compiled a book of poetry for boys, 'Lyra Heroica,' which is a fine thing. It seems to me we can't dip into history ever so little without coming across heroes, and once in a while when we least expect it we are introduced to one in modern life."

"Before you leave Connecticut," said a neighbor of the Torrington delegate, "I should like to say that in Ansonia we have gone into the Reading Journey side of the course with a good deal of thoroughness. We had a map study of the Hansa towns apropos of Hanover, made the acquaintance of Thackeray's 'George the First' which many of us had not read, and renewed our acquaintance with the Brothers Grimm. It was quite a unique experience for us to go over some of the old fairy tales from the point of view of mature students of folk-lore, and we realized more fully than ever what splendid work the Brothers Grimm and Hans Andersen have done for the world."

"That reminds me," rejoined Pendragon, "that there is to be a great Andersen celebration in Chicago in April, which marks the century of his birth. Keep this in mind and watch the papers. You will probably see references to it in some of the leading weeklies. I want now to introduce to you the secretary of the Robert Browning Circle of Warren, Ohio. We have heard from this Circle before and know something of its literary abilities."

The secretary thus introduced, modestly disclaimed any special talents for his Circle: "We enjoy working our wits over Chautauqua programs, and in view of our name 'Robert Browning,' you can imagine that anything a little hard to unravel appeals to us. We are a very informal Circle and our discussions are often exceedingly lively. We have entered into the problems of the French Revolution with an amount of personal intensity that brought out our individual characteristics quite strikingly! We are fortunate in having a member who traveled in Germany some years ago and who not only gave us a very charming talk on the subject, but serves as a source of inspiration when we need special illumination on that subject. We are doing some outside reading in connection with the German literature so as to get as broad a point of view as possible. We make quite a point of the pronunciation of words at our meetings and find it makes us more quick to notice our own lapses as well as those of our neighbors. We had a delightful musical program in January giving the whole evening to it, and reviewing the articles on Bach, Handel, and Haydn with illustrative selections. We are also planning to report later on the 'battleship' question."

"Our method of handling the music part of the course seems to be a little different from any of yours," said a member from the Okaw Circle, of Windsor, Illinois, "for all our city clubs have been federated into a six department woman's club. The music section of the club is taking the 'German Master Musicians' and so we meet with them for this work once a month. We make much of the roll-call in our Circle, using it for special studies of great men, book reviews, current events, etc., and observe the special C. L. S. C. days in this way. Next week we are to take up French and German artists. In February it was our turn to entertain the Woman's Club and we had a very comprehensive French and German program as a sort of suggestion of the kind of work we are doing between whiles in greater detail. We are fortunate in being only seven miles away from the Lithia Springs Chautauqua where we meet many enthusiastic workers in the summer."

Pendragon glanced at the clock. "Just two more reports—the first from the Epworth Circle at Wichita, Kansas."

"Eighteen members is our record, all enrolled at the office at Chautauqua," announced the delegate. "We are having a very prosperous year. This is our fifth, so we've been getting the wisdom which comes with experience all the way along. We elected a permanent program committee in January—one person for each book or series of articles. This committee has arranged our programs for several months ahead, they are printed and given to the members. We believe this is better than the monthly programs which we tried before We have several musical members and are reviewing Mr. Surette's articles under their direction, following his suggestions as closely as possible. We have an annual spelling match which quite rejuvenates us all, and at Christmas time it is our regu-

lar custom to have 'Santa Claus Proceedings' which are more or less mysterious in their character. I've given you only a bare outline of our affairs. You must drop in some day and attend a 'working' meeting."

The final word to the Round Table was the greeting of the Lexington, Kentucky, Circle. "We meet," explained the delegate, "in the parlors of the Central Church every Friday afternoon. Two ladies take charge of the program for the day and they spend much time and thought in securing interesting features. Our members are getting more and more studious and the question review is a very popular feature of the program. We've had lectures and readings by most accomplished persons. Professor Charles L. Loos gave an admirable lecture on Aspects of Feudalism as suggested in the Chautauqua programs. At successive meetings we have given considerable attention to Handel, and Haydn, and Mozart, whose works have been illustrated by skillful performers. We feel that the Circle is exerting a fine influence in our community and we shall do our best to keep up Chautauqua's standard."

Talk About Books

THE METHODIST YEAR BOOK, 1905. Stephen V. R. Ford, editor. 5¼x8. Pp. 214. Paper 20 cents net. New York: Eaton & Mains; Cincinnati: Jennings & Graham.

This excellent compilation, rightly regarded as indispensable to the denomination whose activities are recorded and classified in it, is extremely valuable for reference purposes in any working library. Its information regarding the numerous church institutions and organizations alone is more than warrant for its publication. Altogether this year book is attractive, comprehensive and practicable for every-day use. F. C. B.

SONGS AND SONNETS. By Oswald Norman, M. A., LL. D. 1904. London: Eveleigh Nash.

A collection of sonnets is probably the most severe test of versification for both author and reader. Fifty sonnets and a dozen minor poems are here published in attractive form. The author's technical skill is noteworthily shown in sonnets on identical themes, wholesome sentiment is often happily phrased, and the collection makes a most acceptable gift book. F. C. B.

THE METTLE OF THE PASTURE. By James Lane Allen. 12mo. $1.50. New York: Macmillan & Co.

In "The Mettle of the Pasture" Mr. James Lane Allen captivates the reader as he has done before, with his rare powers of description. The story like some of the author's earlier works deals with a tragedy, but the pictures of both lovely and unlovely members of the society which it portrays are painted with unswerving candor. We feel in spite of the sadness of the book, its strong human quality. Events shape themselves as do those of real life far differently from what we would expect and the reader is impressed with the skill which the author has shown in taking a significant incident of human experience and developing it to its logical results. F. K.

THE GOLDEN WINDOWS. A book of fables for Old and Young. By Laura E. Richards. Ill. Duodecimo. pp. 131. $1.50. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

One does not have to be a child to appreciate fairy tales. Alice in Wonderland is an accepted classic in households whose members were already grown up when it was published. Hans Andersen's exquisite stories never lose their charm for those who have the ears to hear them and dry facts of history become realities when the romantic novelist waves his wand. Mrs. Richards has appreciated this trait of human nature in writing her charming little collection of parables "The Golden Windows." Each has its own homely message but the language which clothes it assures it the welcome which is always certain for a celestial messenger. The story of the weary little child climbing a long hill with flagging steps and of the tactful sister who lifted him above his weariness though in reality he still trod the dusty highway, lingers with the reader. Some day this same reader will hear in another form, perhaps, the child's voice and will respond with the sister's note of courage, and then he also will understand the deep significance of the 'Golden Windows.' F. K.

The Burlington Magazine, now published in America by Robert Grier Cooke, New York, deserves an increasing American clientele for its contributions to the available literature regarding the fine arts. This publication is standard across the water and takes its name from Burlington House, London, the famous home of eight British societies of Art, Sciences and Letters. For connoisseurs, collectors and other art lovers it holds a position of recognized authority in both text and illustrations; the variety and excellence of the latter are as rare as the sources of the contributions of text.

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—John of Damascus.

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THE PALACE OF THE DALAI LAMA AT LHASA

See page 148.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

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THOUGH little is known regarding the real state of political conditions in Russia, all the reports which in one way or another reach the outside world indicate that the country has not been "pacified," and that the conscious and unconscious war upon the aristocratic-bureaucratic régime will continue with undiminished vigor and determination, notwithstanding the Tzar's vague rescript promising some sort of a national assembly elected by the people to "consider" legislation.

The revolutionary movement proper has evidently received a new impetus. When the Tzar, after the assassination of Minister Plehve, turned to the liberal and well-meaning Prince Mirsky for guidance in internal affairs, and concessions to progressive sentiment seemed probable, the extreme elements of the revolutionists, the self-styled "terrorists," of their own accord declared a truce. They were willing to give the government, on the one hand, and the liberals on the other, "a chance" to inaugurate a reform era. But after the January massacre and the retirement of Prince Mirsky, after the appointment of the hated General Trepoff as police dictator of St. Petersburg, and the appointment of Bouliguine, a known reactionary of the Plehve "school" as Minister of Interior, the truce was declared to be at an end.

The autocracy having failed to give the country so much as an earnest of substantial and genuine reform, and the Tzar having once more either (as some hold) through weakness, irresolution, and vacillation, or (according to another current estimate) from fanaticism, blindness, and bigotry, chosen the path of obscurantism and resistance to the just, reasonable, and enlightened demands of what is best and most unselfish in Russia, the terrorists renewed their own peculiar campaign. The "removal," as they call it, of the Grand Duke Sergius, the Tzar's uncle and advisor-in-chief and Russia's "evil genius," surprised no one. He had been under a revolutionary sentence of death for some years, as is the case with other members of the imperial family, if not with Nicholas II himself. The terrorists maintain a "Fighting Organization" and dynamite is their acknowledged weapon. Not all the Russian revolutionists are terrorists, but there is reason to believe that recent events have brought hundreds of fresh recruits and allies to the latter.

More significant than the revival of terror, however, is the revolt of the educated and thinking elements of Russia generally. Resolutions and demands for constitutional changes, for the convoking of a national assembly, for freedom of speech and press, continue to be put forth by various public, semi-public and private bodies. Several universities have been closed, the students (in some instances with the moral support of the professors) having refused to pursue their studies—having, in other words, "struck" against the government, which they accuse of discouraging true education and making academic life impossible by its restrictions, espionage, and brutal inter-

ferences. Despite the police, despite the censors, despite the ministers, at meetings and in the columns of the press the contempt of Russian intelligence for the autocracy finds bold and fearless expression. Four or five outspoken papers, in the capital alone, have recently been suspended, but such measures only intensify and deepen the hatred and discontent excited by the government. It is assuredly impossible to suppress all the newspapers and close all the schools of the empire, while the intellectual "strike" threatens to become general.

GRAND DUKE SERGIUS
Recently assassinated at Moscow.

Labor difficulties and disorders have been reported from various sections of the empire. In Poland and the Caucasus these disturbances seem to have been specially acute. The peasants, too, are displaying dangerous symptoms of unrest, and agrarian troubles are apprehended.

Meantime the future course of the government is still regarded as uncertain. Small reforms, such as committees of ministers are engaged in elaborating, will not meet the requirements of the situation. The "zemsky sobor" so long hoped for and now indefinitely promised in some form may prove to be the last resort of the morally bankrupt autocracy. But no one knows how much blood will be shed and how many sacrifices made before the government's real surrender to the public opinion and the spirit of the age is finally brought about. A duel between the red terror of the revolutionists and the white terror of the autocracy is not impossible, unless the national assembly, elective but purely advisory, which the Tzar has announced, is accepted by the progressive elements as the "entering wedge," the beginning of responsible and constitutional government.

The Labor Question in Russia

In connection with the other reforms decreed or sanctioned by the Tzar, a committee of ministers has been ordered to study the conditions of the city proletariat, the factory and mill workmen, and to elaborate a scheme of reforms. Employers and employees are to be consulted, each of these interests being granted the right to elect spokesmen or representatives.

It is probable that the Russian government recognizes the need of following the example of Western Europe and taking upon itself the duty of safeguarding the rights and interests of the working classes. The past "labor legislation" of Russia is well characterized by Russian editors and writers as a strange mixture of indifference, short-sightedness, and incompetence.

On the one hand, the workingman is prohibited from organizing and bargaining "collectively" with employers. Strikes are criminal conspiracies, assaults upon the order and peace of the state, under the general code, and the same is true of trade unions. On the other hand, the government has done next to nothing to protect the working classes from the oppression and tyranny of the employers. In the matter of wages, hours, and factory conditions generally the employers are permitted to make any "contracts" they please with the individual workmen.

On account of these circumstances, the movements among the workmen have in recent years assumed a political character. Dissatisfaction with employers has almost invariably meant fear and distrust of the government, known to favor the employers and to place all sorts of obstructions in the way of self help and coöperation among the employees. The revolutionists and Socialists have thus found it easy to

propagate their ideas and make numerous converts in the world of the city laborers.

A few years ago certain subordinates of the ministry of the interior conceived the idea of organizing labor associations under political auspices and control in order to counteract the efforts of the revolutionary elements. These unions were secret bodies, and of course enjoyed no legal status. The police had agents in each of them and connived at meetings and even at strikes. The associations were dubbed "yellow unions" by the more independent and insurgent workmen, and were treated with open contempt. It is said that "Father Gapon," the mysterious leader of the St. Petersburg strikers whom the terrible events of January transformed into a revolutionist, was originally one of the men induced or encouraged by the police to take an active part in the movement and undertake the management of the association.

Even before the "removal" of Von Plehve by the terrorists the "yellow unions" showed distinct signs of independence and of sympathy with the revolutionary forces. After the death of the powerful reactionary the control of these organizations was completely lost by the police. The first of the St. Petersburg strikes of January last, at the Putiloff works was organized by the new leaders of the yellow unions; it was caused by the brutality of foremen, the summary discharge of some workmen and the hard conditions of labor in the establishment. The government remained passive, because, an official statement says, there were at first no breaches of peace and acts of lawlessness; that the strike itself was illegal, is a fact not mentioned in the statement.

GENERAL TREPOFF
Governor-General of St. Petersburg.

How the strike spread; how the movement assumed a political aspect, and a demand for constitutional government was put forth together with purely industrial proposals, in the name of the men; how the government met the petitioners, and thereby created, for a time, a state of things bordering on revolution — are items of recent history sufficiently familiar and fresh in the public memory. It will be impossible, after all that has happened, to suppress the associations and outlaw strikes. Doubtless the laws to be recommended by the ministers and the mixed commission of masters and men that has been called into existence will recognize the right to organize, strike, make collective bargains with employers, and peaceably strive for the amelioration of labor conditions, which today are incredibly bad.

The "great industry" of Russia has been artificially stimulated by the government. It was the policy of De Witte as finance minister to attract capital, encourage manufacturers, and build up a home market. For a time he was successful; but a reaction came, many industrial com-

"UNEASY LIES THE HEAD THAT WEARS A CROWN"
—From the Minneapolis Journal.

panies collapsed, employment was scarce, and the city proletariat was reduced to extreme misery. Even now the employers assert that to raise wages or reduce hours is to bring ruin to Russian industry. The problem before the government is a serious one and bristles with difficulties and dangers.

GOV. E. W. HOCH OF KANSAS
Who signed a bill providing for a state oil refinery.

Alaskan Government Telegraph

We referred in a recent paragraph to the success of the governmental telegraph system in Australia. It is not generally known that the United States has a government telegraph system of very considerable proportions—the Alaskan line. The entire construction comprises 3,738 miles—2,127 miles of cable, 1,504 miles of land lines, and a wireless system of 107 miles. By means of this combination of diverse elements—not elsewhere found in a single system—the government has brought Southern Alaska, the Yukon Valley and the Bering Strait region into telegraphic communication with the rest of the civilized world. For over half a century certain engineers and travelers have dreamed of an American-Asiatic telegraph via Bering Strait, and to complete this project there lacks only a cable to the Asiatic shore and a Russian land line of about 1,500 miles. But the country from the Kamchatka coast to Mikolailosk is infertile and sparsely inhabited.

The work on the Alaskan telegraph was begun in 1865, and finished this year. Primarily its use is military, or governmental, but it is open to private business, which has rapidly and constantly increased. The line is expected to accelerate the rate of industrial and commercial progress in Alaska.

A former head of the signal service strongly advocated the purchase of all telegraph lines by the federal government. Under General Greely private lines have been utilized wheresoever possible, and the government has constructed lines for itself only where private capital and enterprise could not be expected to occupy the field profitably.

A Barren Session of Congress

The second and "short" session of the late Congress, which ended on March 4, was singularly barren. Not that much in the way of constructive or substantive legislation had been expected from it; on the contrary, every one predicted in the fall that a do-nothing policy would be pursued by Congress. Of course, many questions are pressing for solution, and morally the dominant party is under obligation to deal with them. But the feeling in the national legislature and especially in the Senate, was that each of the great questions required more consideration than the short session would have permitted, and so practically everything "went over."

Tariff revision was not even seriously discussed; no additional trust legislation was enacted or proposed, though a resolution was adopted for an investigation of the Standard Oil trust by the Department of Commerce and Labor; the tariff on the Philippine products imported into the United States was left intact, in spite of repeated and earnest appeals by Secretary Taft and the Philippine government for a reduction of the present rates; reciprocity was treated with the habitual coldness and hostility, so that even conservative Republican organs recognize that it is idle to dilly-dally with it any longer, and that henceforth direct revision of the tariff must be the watchword of those who believe that the Dingley act is antiquated and productive of much injustice to consumers.

In fact, even the statehood bill, which consumed a good deal of time in the Senate, and which, as it came from the House, provided for the admission of Oklahoma and Indian Territory as one state and New Mexico and Arizona as another, failed in conference owing to the rejection by the House of either of the changes proposed by the Senate, which objected to the union of New Mexico and Arizona in violation of the expressed wishes of the latter territory. The Senate would have admitted New Mexico as one state and Oklahoma, with Indian Territory, as another. It would have admitted the last two territories and left New Mexico and Arizona out of the bill; but the House insisted on its two-state measure, and the whole agitation ended in smoke.

More than any other bill the Esch-Townsend "rate" bill attracted national attention. It passed the House after an utterly inadequate discussion (amendments having been ruled out by the Republican caucus) and was admittedly crude and defective, but the Senate was expected, if it dealt with the subject at all, to amend it in several important particulars. It was not even considered by that body. Lack of time is the official explanation; lack of desire and inclination, the popular. The Esch-Townsend bill embodied the President's recommendation that additional power be conferred on the Interstate Commerce Commission to enable it to prescribe and enforce reasonable rates where, upon investigation, the rates charged by any railroad have been adjudged too high or unfair. In the West public opinion undoubtedly favored this bill, but at no time was it believed that the Senate was ready to provide for rate-making by the commission. The whole subject of rates and railroad practices, including rebates, discrimination, alleged subterfuges of all kinds contrary to law, is to be investigated during the summer by the Senate committee. A report is to be made by this committee at the next session of Congress, and it is thought that the evidence to be collected will compel the Senate to legislate upon the rate question. The opposition of the railroad companies shows no signs of weakening, however.

VESPASIAN WARNER
Commissioner of Pensions.

HENRY L. WHITE
New United States Ambassador to Italy.

The Senate had the arbitration treaties to consider, the case of Judge Swayne of Florida to hear and determine. The impeached judge was acquitted; and on none of the several charges (or "specifications") did even a bare majority of the Senators vote for conviction. Judge Swayne was accused by the House of oppression, fraudulent expense accounts, non-residence in his district and other offenses. The evidence submitted was unquestionably sufficient, especially with reference to the expense account (the judge having charged the government $10 a day for expenses when in reality they were considerably lower), but the Senate felt that the offenses were not grave enough to have warranted impeachment or to merit the constitutional penalty. The verdict, "Not Guilty," did not mean what is said; it meant: Not guilty of high crimes and misdemeanors. But Judge Swayne's usefulness on the bench is clearly at an end, and he is expected to

resign. At the same time it is true that other federal judges have, like him, overcharged the government in their expense accounts and laid themselves open to like censure.

THE LATE GENERAL LEW WALLACE
American author.

Apart from appropriations, few bills of moment were enacted at the late session. To repeat, it was exceptionally barren and remarkable for what it did not, rather than for what it did, accomplish. A special session of Congress in October is looked for, to deal with the tariff and the rate problem.

The Arbitration Treaties and the Constitutional Controversy

We have discussed in these pages the identical arbitration treaties negotiated some months ago between the United States and several European countries (to which a treaty with Japan has since been added). For a time there was considerable uncertainty as to the intention of the Senate, without whose concurrence and approval by a two-thirds vote no treaty can become effective, with reference to these important conventions, cordially endorsed by all peace-loving and enlightened citizens. It was known that Democratic Senators, especially from southern states, opposed the treaties on the ground that under them attempts might be made by foreign powers to force arbitration of the claims of their subjects against the states which repudiated their bonds a generation ago in consequence of the war and the evils of reconstruction. But to the principle of the treaties no opposition was manifested in the Senate.

Subsequently it transpired that the committee on foreign relations had adopted an amendment to one of the articles of the identical treaties which very materially changed their character and purpose. The newspapers promptly attacked the proposed amendment as involving devitalization and nullification of the conventions, and the same view was taken by the President in a letter to Senator Cullom. Mr. Roosevelt recognized the right of the Senate to reject or amend the treaties, but he argued that the proposed amendment would destroy the whole value and significance of the treaties and intimated that if it should be adopted he should not consider it expedient or just to submit the altered treaties, for an exchange of ratifications, to the other contracting powers.

The gist of the controversy may be briefly indicated. The treaties were *general* in their character. They were originally intended to commit the contracting powers to the use of arbitration in certain vaguely defined *classes* of cases. A provision expressly excluding questions affecting the independence, the honor, and the vital interests of those powers from the purview of the treaties was inserted in each—to the displeasure of many advanced friends of peace who believe that such large exceptions deprive the treaties of much of their value. The classes of cases made subject to arbitration were differences of a legal nature or arising from the construction of other treaties and conventions.

There was a section in the treaties requiring each specific case needing arbitration to be made the subject of a special *agreement* between the contending powers. The purpose of this agreement, clearly was to define and carefully frame the points to be submitted. But the Senate amended this section by substituting the word *treaty* for the word *agreement*.

A simple amendment, apparently, but of far-reaching effect and great importance. The "agreement" concluded

under a *general* treaty would not, it is contended by the administration, have had to be submitted to the Senate for approval. The Senate would have given its consent, in advance, to arbitration of the special classes of cases, and there alike its duty and right would have ended. If, however, each case in which arbitration is sought must be made the subject of a special treaty, then that special treaty must be submitted to the Senate; in other words, *nothing* can be arbitrated, even under the so-called "general" treaties, without the consent and approval of the Senate specifically and expressly obtained.

The Senate's contention is that it cannot surrender or delegate its share in the making of treaties; that an agreement to arbitrate a case is a treaty and must, in obedience to the Constitution, be submitted to it, and, moreover, that it would be dangerous, as well as improper, to allow the executive to determine whether a given case does or does not come under the treaty, does or does not affect the honor, independence, and so forth, of the country.

The administration and its supporters hold this three-fold contention to be fallacious, and assert that the treaty as amended has no significance and makes not a single step forward in the direction of arbitration. The right to amend the treaties in this or any other way, like the right to reject them without ado, is not denied to the Senate; all that is said is that the Senate has used its power in a narrow, obstructive, meddlesome spirit and thereby violated the *spirit* of the constitutional division of governmental powers. How, it is asked, would Congress like to see the veto power abused by the President in a systematic policy of interference with and censorious control of legislation?

BISHOP W. F. MC DOWELL
New president Religious Education Association.

It should be added, however, that not a few distinguished advocates of arbitration have approved the action of the Senate and expressed the opinion that even in their altered form they are sufficiently important to enjoin upon the President the submission of them to the contracting powers. It seems certain that at least some of the powers would ratify them to emphasize the friendly relations existing between them and the United States.

WAR IN KANSAS
—From the Cleveland Plain Dealer.

A Modernized Monroe Doctrine

Opinions naturally differ as to the wisdom and expediency of the "new departure" in American foreign policy involved in the Santo Domingo treaty. Some say that the course of the administration, if not wholly free from danger, is, all things considered, the least objectionable of all that the circumstances permit or suggest. Others commend it as an instance of far-sighted and constructive statesmanship, while a third view is that there is absolutely nothing in the existing situation, diplomatically speaking, to require or justify so radical and so grave a

modification of the Monroe Doctrine as the treaty in question admittedly implies.

The treaty as revised and after some delay submitted to the Senate (for it is generally believed that originally it was the intention of the administration to conclude some sort of a protocol or agreement with Santo Domingo, rather than a treaty, and dispense with the approval of the Senate) provides, in effect, for fiscal control of the Dominican Republic through the administration of its customs houses, the collection of the revenues and their honest and judicious apportionment to the payment of debts to foreign creditors and the defraying of the expenses of the government. In addition, other aid and assistance, not merely in a fiscal direction, might be given by the United States at the request of the Dominican government.

SIR CASPER PURDON CLARKE
New Director of the Metropolitan Art Museum.

The argument in favor of this arrangement may be condensed into a few sentences, as follows: the old-world governments are dissatisfied with the state of affairs created by the rigid application of the Monroe Doctrine. We protect the Central and South American republics from the consequences of their misconduct while doing nothing to improve their conduct. We forbid colonization, interference, appropriation of territory or oppression by old-world powers on this hemisphere, yet we do not guarantee just treatment of creditors, foreign residents, and others by our moral "wards" and *protégés*. Can the great powers of Europe be expected to respect so one-sided a "doctrine," with hundreds of thousands of their subjects holding South American securities and with millions of such subjects residing and doing business in those countries? If the United States is to adhere to the Monroe Doctrine, should it not recognize the corollary and assume the burden of enforcing justice to foreigners in South America and thus remove all occasion for naval demonstrations, blockades, seizures of customs houses, and other disturbing and threatening incidents of the kind that occurred in Venezuela some years ago, when England and Germany were attempting to force payment of certain "claims" of their subjects against the western republic.

The answer to this reasoning, made by the critics of the treaty, is that the alleged necessity of modernizing and extending the Monroe doctrine is by no means clear. The "doctrine" was respected by Europe in the days of our weakness, when we had no navy and were not recognized as a "world power;" it was respected by England when President Cleveland virtually declared that the alternative to arbitration in the dispute over the Venezuelan boundary was war with the United States, Lord Salisbury yielding under circumstances that must have sorely tried the temper of the British government; it was respected by Germany in the difficulty with Venezuela already referred to, and indeed, on several occasions the German chancellor has expressly disclaimed any hostility to the "doctrine." Now that the United States is a first-rate power, the construction and application of the "doctrine" heretofore adopted with signal success would seem to be doubly "safe."

Moreover, the argument continues, can the United States undertake the collection of debts in Central and South America on a large scale? Would not such an extraordinary and self-imposed duty make us an object of dislike, fear, and suspicion, and might it not lead to complications even more dangerous than those apprehended from the "old" Monroe Doctrine? Santo Domingo would become a precedent and not in every case

would the "consent" of the debtor nation be obtained as readily as in the present instance, and it might not be obtainable at all. Force would have to be used, and that would mean war in behalf of speculators and adventurers for the collection of debts not always genuine.

These are the principal "pros and cons" of the discussion. Special exception has been taken, in addition, to the seventh article of the treaty, which read as follows:

The government of the United States, at the request of the Dominican Republic, shall grant the latter such other assistance as the former may deem proper to restore the credit, preserve the order, increase the efficiency of the civil administration and advance the material progress and welfare of the Dominican Republic."

Does this involve the employment of our military and naval forces in the Republic against internal enemies?

The War Upon Monopoly

Several incidents have emphasized the determination of the people of the United States to put an end to the growth of monopoly. Never was the "trust" question more "burning" than it is today. There is no further talk regarding the repeal of the Sherman law, and the economists or quasi-economists who used to defend the gigantic combinations as promoters of efficiency and economy have retired from the field. What the present developments will lead to ultimately, no one can predict, but monopoly will have to fight hard for its existence.

A sensation even greater than that caused by the government's attack upon the railway "merger" (the Securities Company) was created by the announcement from Washington that criminal proceedings were contemplated against the packers and that evidence collected by agents of the Department of Justice and of the bureau of corporations warranted the calling of federal grand juries to consider the question of the packers' guilt under the law.

It will not have been forgotten that a few weeks ago the federal Supreme Court sustained the injunction issued by Judge Grosscup of the Circuit Court at Chicago against the leading packers. It is true, as we pointed out in a previous issue, that the injunction established certain principles of law. But it became a very important matter to ascertain *whether* the packers had been guilty of the practices which the government charged in the bill for the original injunction and which the defendants stoutly denied having committed.

PRESIDENT MORALES OF SANTO DOMINGO
His assassination was recently attempted.

The general impression is that before and since the issuance of the injunction the packers have maintained a combination of the closest kind for the restraint of trade and the prevention of competition—in other words that they had deliberately violated the law against monopoly as well as the order of the Circuit Court. This, if true, renders them liable to punishment for contempt and to further punishment under the Sherman law. The grand jury investigation should, when completed, answer the question of fact involved, though, of course, even the return of an indictment, legally speaking, does not raise a presumption of guilt. At all events, the criminal clauses of the trust law are at last to be tested and it is the universal opinion that it is idle to add to the existing anti-monopoly legislation when the most effective and deterrent weapons placed in the hands of the government by that legislation remain unused. The demand for criminal prosecutions of violators of the trust law and the commerce law could not be ignored.

The government has also undertaken an inquiry into the operations and methods of the Standard Oil Company. This move may be considered to be part of the states' campaign against this powerful corporation, the most prominent and active factor in which has been the state of Kansas. Many ways of fighting the Standard Oil interests have been proposed, the following being the principal ones: to build state oil refineries and thus enter into direct competition with the trust; to pass rigid anti-discrimination laws—that is, to prohibit the lowering or raising of prices in one or more sections of the state for the purpose of crippling competition; to declare pipe lines subject to the law of common carriers, or even condemn them to public use as public highways. These methods have actually been adopted by Kansas, though it is denounced as "tending to Socialism" and as probably unconstitutional. The second and third are under consideration in several states.

The present agitation against Standard Oil originated in the bitter complaints of Kansas owners of oil lands, on the one hand, and of Kansas consumers of the refined product on the other. The former were not paid, as they asserted, a fair price for their oil, the latter were charged too high a price for the oil they used. The independent refiners of the state were, it seems, unable to compete with the great corporation, chiefly, it is alleged, because of illicit discrimination in rates on the part of the railway companies. Investigations of relations between the railroads and the oil trust and into the status of the pipe lines, have been or will be ordered in several states.

Meantime the Supreme Court has sustained a strong anti-trust act, providing for criminal prosecution of officers of monopolistic combinations, as a proper exercise of the police power of the state, and all along the line either further legislation against monopoly or more determined enforcement of existing law is the "order of the day." In the West, particularly, does the conflict seem likely to become "irrepressible," and if regulation will not suffice, tens of thousands are apparently ready to follow the example of Kansas and proceed to measures of a collectivist character.

"Americanizing" the Church in France

The Rouvier ministry, pursuant to its initial announcement but sooner than anyone expected, presented early last month to the chamber of deputies a bill for the separation of church and state. The sincerity of the new ministry with regard to the disestablishment was doubted by many—not excepting some of its radical supporters, and a more conciliatory attitude toward the Vatican than that of Combes would have surprised no one. But the Rouvier separation bill is a genuine disestablishment measure. It is based on the principle of freedom for all religious denominations—the American principle of non-interference with and non-support of the church by the government.

Premier Combes was willing to withdraw the substantial grants to the Church of Rome and all other privileges, though

DEHORNING THE BEEF TRUST
Uncle Sam—Cut 'em off short, William
—From the Minneapolis Journal.

he realized the need of making haste slowly, but he was not willing, at the same time to give complete liberty within the limits of the general law, to the churches, priests, and worshipers. He thought such liberty dangerous to the interests of the Republic, because the majority of the bishops, if not of the priests, sympathized with the monarchists and the rationalists, and he proposed to retain various restrictions calculated to prevent either open attacks or secret plots against the Republic. This feature of his policy was severely criticized by some of the leading radicals of France, who advocated religious liberty without ifs and buts, and who were willing to assume the risks of such liberty.

Rouvier's bill seems to be a more consistent and logical measure than that of his predecessor. The principal points are: 1. Abrogation of the century-old agreement with Rome (the Concordat), whereby the relations between the church and the state were established. 2. Termination of all government aids and subsidies to sects or functionaries. 3. Formation of church associations into civil corporations, amenable to the same laws as all other organizations of men.

These principles, the ministry declares, guarantee freedom of worship and religious organization and limit it only by demanding respect for law and the peace of the state. To smooth the passage of the new régime, regulations are provided for suppressed monastic institutions, for the use of property belonging to the state by the religious associations and for pensions to ministers.

Since the question of separation assumed practical political importance many French Catholic leaders have changed their opinions and, instead of opposing, favor disestablishment. With the experience of America before their eyes, they now believe that religious freedom and church independence make the people more devout and earnest rather than less so. But the masses of the Catholic population have not advanced to this position, and much passionate controversy may be expected to attend the progress of the Rouvier bill in Parliament.

"Nationalization" of the Telephones in England

The British government years ago decided, "in principle," to take over the telephone service and operate it as a government monopoly, in connection with the postal service. It already owns trunk lines, but the acquisition of the whole business has not been an easy project to carry through successfully.

THE LATE MRS. JANE L. STANFORD
Benefactress of Leland Stanford University.

It has been announced officially that the British postmaster-general has at last come to an agreement with the National Telephone Company, which is a private corporation whose total capitalization exceeds $40,000,000, looking toward government purchase of the assets of the company and the entrance into full possession on the last day of the year 1911. The price to be paid is to be determined by arbitration, but it is understood that only the fair market value of the plant and works is to be paid, nothing being allowed for good will, franchise or monopoly value, compulsory purchase, etc.

In order to insure efficient service during the continuance of the company in possession, the agreement provides, first, for intercommunication without additional charge between its system and that of the government; second, for uniform treatment of subscribers, and, third, for the taking over of any part of the company's

system on proof of unsatisfactory service in any district. Maximum rates are fixed by law, but the law cannot undertake to prescribe the character of the service to be given for a prescribed rate, hence this last provision.

Though there is no irresistible public demand in England for government telephones, the government's arrangement provokes little if any criticism. Correspondents have recently called attention to an alleged "reaction" against public ownership in Great Britain, and Parliament, they predicted, would call a halt to the further attempts at "municipal trading" contemplated in several cities. The debts of the municipal corporations, it was said, had grown at an alarming rate, and bankruptcy stared many of them in the face. Not only are the British municipalities proceeding with their municipalization plans, however, but even the national government goes into "trading" on a large scale without meeting with any opposition.

Trading Professors

One of the indirect results of Emperor William's gift of a Germanic Museum to Harvard University has been the exchange of professors between America and Germany recently agreed upon by the universities of Berlin and Harvard. The project was suggested at a meeting held in Berlin when the necessary business in connection with the museum was transacted. Other conferences led finally to a provisional agreement between the Prussian Government and Harvard University which provides for an exchange of professors between the universities of Berlin and Harvard for five successive years. One member yearly from each institution will be enrolled regularly for a period of at least three months as a member of the teaching staff of the other. But though upon the regular teaching staff, these professors will lecture upon subjects and methods peculiar to their own countries, the idea being thus to bring about a better understanding and sympathy between Germany and the United States. From a list submitted by Harvard University, Professor F. G. Peabody was selected by the University of Berlin as the first American representative to Germany. Professor Peabody will lecture on "The Ethics of the Social Question."

Although the present agreement is only between the Universities of Harvard and Berlin it is understood that Emperor William hopes to extend the scope of the plan and bring about exchanges between other German and American universities. Such an exchange of scholastic compliments indicates not only the growing sympathy between universities of different nations but it indicates as well that American scholarship is now received abroad on a basis of equality. This is a flattering admission, but it should not cause us to lose sight of the solid educational advantages to us involved in lectures by foreign scholars upon social life and ideals of their own countries. American students will in these obtain that difference in point of view which, in literary, social, religious, and ethical questions, makes possible true understanding.

What the Paragraphers Say

A Senator's Investigation.—"You favor an investigation of trusts?"

"Certainly," answered Senator Sorghum. "I have investigated several. I always make it a rule to determine the responsibility of a firm before I consent to do business with it."—*Washington Star.*

Taking It Both Ways.—"War seems to be the only remedy for some countries."

"Yes and Russia seems to need it both externally and internally."—*Cleveland Plain Dealer.*

Irony.—"Why is the Tzar so turbulent this morning?" asked the royal caller.

"'Sh!" whispered the high official. "Some one just sent him a book and insisted he should read it."

"Ah, something inflamable, eh?"

"Worse than that. It was called 'The Simple Life'."—*Chicago News.*

A dispatch quotes the Russian Embassy officials in Paris as saying that General Kuropatkin's retreat was "part of a settled plan." The plan was settled, all right.—*Louisville Courier-Journal.*

Four years more — of what? — *Louisville Courier Journal.*

Germany and the Program of Socialism

By Frederic Austin Ogg

University of Indiana. Author of "Saxon and Slav."

ONE very convenient method by which to approach the subject of present social conditions in any European country is to investigate the strength of socialism, and the demands of the socialists, in that particular country; for though socialism differs widely in France and Italy and Germany and England, it everywhere represents the yearning of the people for the reforms and changes in society and government which they deem most essential to their well-being. Manifestly what men yearn for they do not yet have; hence the program of the socialists may be taken as a sort of negative measure of the liberty and prosperity already realized. Nowhere is this so true as in Germany, for nowhere are the socialists so numerous and so well organized as there, and nowhere have they a line of policy which appeals so universally to the great masses of the people. In sketching the social progress of the Germans during the last three or four decades, and in outlining the problems which confront German society today, we cannot do better, therefore, than to proceed along the courses marked out by the agitations and ideals of the great socialist party—a party young in years as a political organization, but fairly phenomenal in its growth and influence.

In order, however, to understand the rise and recent history of German socialism it is necessary for us to glance briefly at certain facts in the political development of Germany during the past half-century or more. Socialism among the Germans has lately taken on a very decided political character. Its demands grow largely out of political conditions; it proposes to work by political methods; and it seeks to accomplish something of a political, as well as a social, revolution. The strongly entrenched position of socialism in Germany today is the natural, almost inevitable, outcome of the new empire's paternal and autocratic system of government.

Like Italy, Germany as a centralized power is a new member of the European family of nations. Both states in their present form represent the results of almost a century of arduous nation-building and the two contemporary processes reached their culmination at about the same time—in 1870 in Italy and in 1871 in Germany. The agitation for the union of the scores of German kingdoms and principalities into a single strong state first

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This is the eighth of a series of nine articles on "Social Progress in Europe." The complete list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Some Features of the Old Régime (September).
The Afterglow of the Revolution (October).
Reaction and the Republican Revival (November).
Era of Social Experiment (December).
England and the Industrial Revolution (January).
The Great Era of English Reform (February).
Recent Social Conditions in the Romance Countries (March).
Germany and the Program of Socialism (April).
Social and Industrial Russia (May).

became important in the era of Napoleon. The great champion of German unity in those early days was the Prussian patriot Stein. The elaborate plan for a German federation which he worked out, however, was brushed aside without a moment's consideration at the Congress of Vienna. The members of that remarkable assembly were not disposed to look with favor upon any such scheme to enlarge and preserve the traditional liberties of any people, and besides, the internal conditions of Germany were far from favorable to a closer union. The two great powers, Austria and Prussia, were intensely jealous of each other and flatly refused to surrender one iota of their independence, while the same thing was very largely true of all the numerous smaller states; apparently about all that these latter had in common was a dread of being dominated by their larger neighbors. The Congress of Vienna did create a German federation, but on such terms that the government for which it provided amounted in practice to absolutely nothing; in fact it has been well said that the German federal act of 1815 was not a form of government at all, but rather only a polite and ceremonious way of doing nothing. Stein was ahead of his times, yet his influence was well worth while and his labors indeed entitle him to the reward of being considered one of the greatest Germans of the nineteenth century. More than anyone else he set in motion those forces of public sentiment which in recent days have had not a little to do with the realizing of the great ideal which he so ardently cherished.

During the years between 1815 and 1848 the demand for German unity and for constitutional government on the pattern of England steadily developed. although under the repressive and autocratic governments everywhere prevailing, agitation in behalf of liberalism was exceedingly dangerous business. In the midst of the Napoleonic struggle several of the German princes had been constrained by dire necessity to promise their subjects the grant of a constitution, but after the stress of war was removed these potentates showed no disposition whatever to make good their pledges and despotism continued precisely as before. It was chiefly the artisan classes and the students at the universities who kept up the agitation for reform, but even these did not contemplate violent revolution and were often disposed to content themselves with dreams of what ideal conditions would be, rather than to rise in force to compel the change. The Revolution of 1830 which swept away the Bourbon monarchy in France occasioned but the slightest ripple of excitement in Germany; autocracy was armed to defend itself; the people knew it and possessed themselves with exemplary discretion.

The events of the year 1848, however, showed that under the surface an immense amount of real progress on the part of the liberal element had been made. Even before the outbreak in France, in 1847, the Prussian king had been brought to the point of granting a parliament, and though this body was deficient enough in powers, the bare fact of its existence by royal authority represented a decided gain. The Paris uprising of 1848 was the signal for a general assertion of public opinion by the German people such as the despotic princes had never yet encountered. The time for action had come at last and in every capital city, and in many of the smaller towns, the Liberals began the work of actual revolution. Their demands were everywhere much the same—trial by jury, the legal equality of religious creeds, freedom of the press, equitable taxation, the abolition of old feudal rights of landowners, and a ministry responsible to the people for its acts. Everywhere on the continent—in France, in Austria, and even in Italy—the revolutionists were successful, at least for the time being, and this fact, together with the strong pressure brought to bear by the aroused German people, led the rulers of Germany one after another to

give way before the popular demand. The greatest victory was won when, early in 1848, King Frederick William IV of Prussia consented to the establishment of a constitutional government instead of the absolute despotism which had always heretofore existed in his state. After some months of fruitless experimenting by a national assembly, or constitutional convention, the king himself promulgated the constitution under which he declared himself willing that Prussia should be governed. The monarchical authority, as might be expected, was retained in a very large measure, but there was to be a national parliament of two houses, and the make-up of the lower of these was put on a fairly democratic basis.

One entirely unexpected feature of the Revolution of 1848 in Germany was the rather melodramatic avowal by Frederick William that the people could not go farther than he in promoting the cause of German national unity and that he would himself assume the leadership of the agitation for that great end. Very little was done by the king to fulfill this promise, but his attitude had a good deal of influence in the way of strengthening the idea that if there ever was to be a real German nation Prussia should be its head and Prussia should assume the leadership in the movement for union. Herein lay the greatest of all obstacles to the cause of German nationality, for Austria was almost if not quite as powerful as Prussia and was just as determined as was the latter state to hold the place of supremacy in any German nation which might be brought into existence. Austria and Prussia were, in truth, irreconcilable, and it would have been far better for all concerned if this fact had been recognized and acted upon at the beginning instead of in the heat of passion following bitter war. Prussia was Protestant, Austria was predominantly Catholic. Prussia was almost entirely German, Austria was very largely non-German. There was everything to keep them apart and nothing to unite them. Politically, religiously, and racially they were natural enemies, and experience was to show that no nation could be built up to include them both.

In 1861 William I became king of Prussia and in 1862 Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen was made head of the Prussian cabinet. The building of the present German nation was almost entirely the work of these two men. Both had a horror of socialism and republicanism and a contempt for constitutional government, and both cherished firmly the ideal of German unity under Prussian leadership. Obviously the realization of this ideal would involve enormous expenditures, for it was more than probable that a resort would have to be had to war. Hence from the outset the Prussian parliament, seeing nothing but the prospect of taxation, gave the project of the king and minister little or no support. This, however, did not greatly interfere with the government's plans, for William, upon the advice of Bismarck, simply ignored the parliament's attitude and raised the necessary money

WILLIAM I
Emperor of Germany 1871-1888.

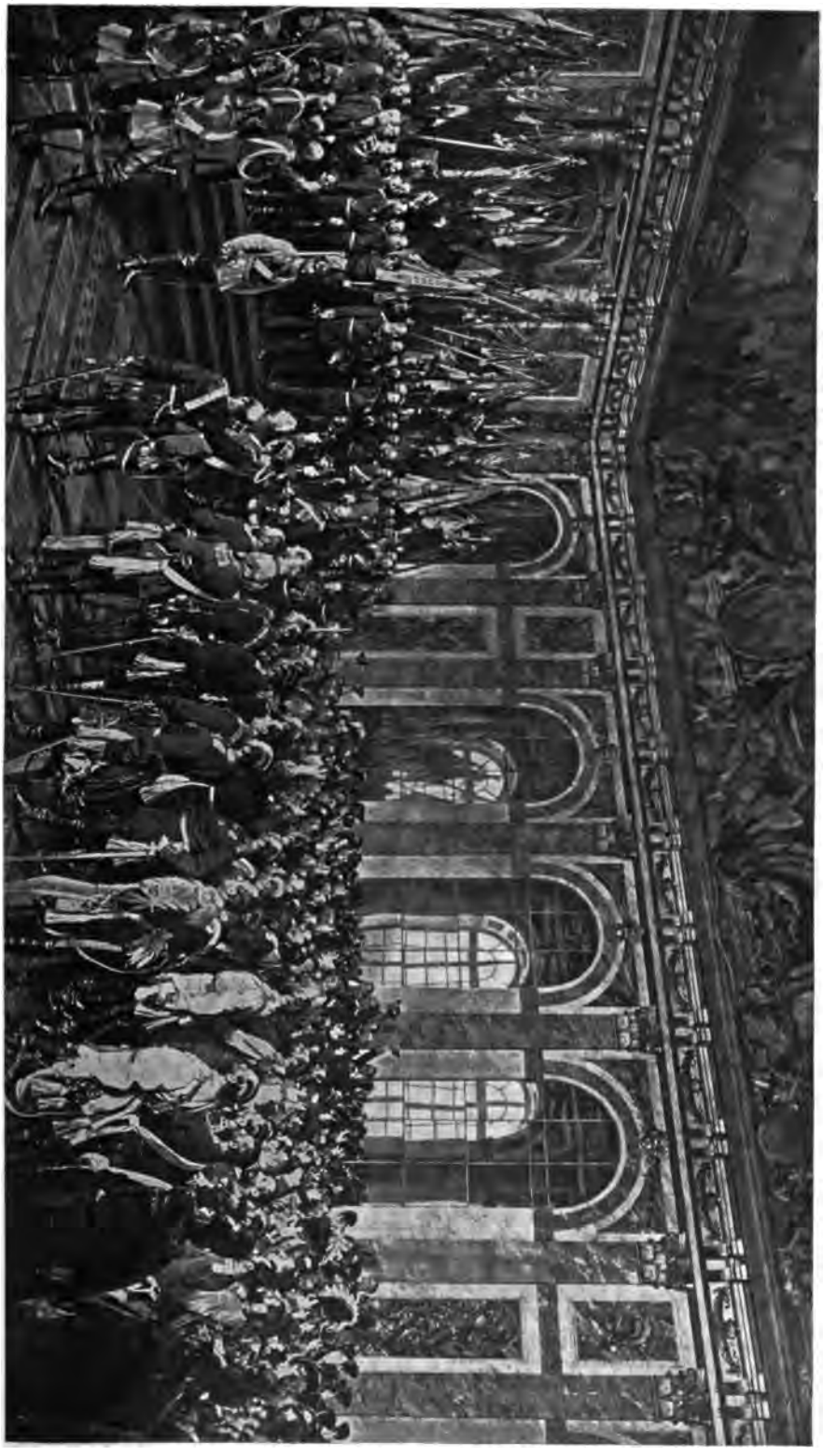
arbitrarily. Only by a policy of blood and iron, declared Bismarck, could the regeneration of Germany be accomplished; and the history of the next ten years was abundantly to substantiate the view.

The story of these ten years is altogether too lengthy to be rehearsed here. We must content ourselves with a bare enumeration of the important movements and events which led to the final establishment of German unity in 1871. These are as follows: (1) the war with Denmark in 1864 regarding the Schleswig-Holstein question; (2) Bismarck's determination to force Austria into a war over the division of the Schleswig-Holstein spoils, and so attain his great end of excluding her from German affairs; (3) the Six Weeks' War with Austria in the summer of 1866 and the great Prussian victory at Sadowa; (4) the peace of Prague, August 23, 1866, by which Austria was forced out of German affairs altogether; (5) the formal dissolution, in 1866, of the German confederation formed by the reactionary powers at Vienna in 1814; (6) the creation of the North German Federation—a true federal state with the King of Prussia as president and with a bicameral legislature whose lower house was elected by universal suffrage; (7) the admission of the South German states (Bavaria, Baden, and Wurtemburg) to the North German customs union in 1867; (8) the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-71, resulting in the utter defeat of the French; (9) the peace of Frankfort, May 10, 1871, in closure of the war; and (10) the coronation of King William I, January 18, 1871, as German emperor. This last event occurred while the seige of Paris was still in progress and a few months later a parliament of all Germany ratified a constitution for the new German empire.

A recent historian has passed this interesting judgment upon the moral aspects of the process by which Germany was made into a united nation:

The story of the making of Germany shows plainly enough that the process was one not only of "blood and iron," but also of fraud and falsehood. It is hard to tell the story of such gigantic and successful audacity and craft without seeming to glorify it. It is to be remembered, of course, that Bismarck did not work for personal or low ends, nor for merely Prussian ends, but that he was inspired by a true and broad patriotism. Only through such a national union as he accomplished could the German people reach to the better elements in modern life. At the same time, Bismarck's success has tended, too probably, to lower the tone of international morality; and his policy of fraud and violence has left to Germany a legacy of burning questions which will grieve it long. The rule of the drill-sergeant and of the police officer in modern Germany, the hostility to the empire felt by the Danes of Schleswig and the French of Alsace-Lorraine, the bitter jealousy between Prussia and Bavaria, and the immense armies of all Europe are among the results of his policy. It is too early to say that that policy is truly victorious.

A few words as to the character of the German government as established in 1871. The empire has the distinction of being the only strong federal state in history made up of monarchies, for of the twenty-five states embraced within it four are kingdoms (Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, and Wurtemburg), eighteen are duchies, grand-duchies, or principalities, and three are republics (Bremen, Hamburg, and Lubeck). The emperor is in theory a mere president of the federation and he gets his position *ex-officio* by being king of Prussia. Prussia is larger and stronger than all the other twenty-four states together and hence the autocratic power of the sovereign as king of Prussia is pretty nearly equivalent in practice to an autocracy over the whole empire. The legal sovereign of the empire is really not the emperor at all but the Federal Council, or Bundesrath, a body composed of fifty-six delegates appointed in definite proportions by the sovereigns of the different states. The Bundesrath is not a legislative body, but rather an executive one, though in



KING WILLIAM OF PRUSSIA PROCLAIMED WILLIAM I, EMPEROR OF GERMANY, AT VERSAILLES, JANUARY 18, 1871

fact it exercises much influence over legislation. It prepares almost all measures that come before the Reichstag and possesses an absolute veto (as the emperor does not) upon all the acts of that body. This Reichstag is of course the national

THE NIEDERWALD MONUMENT

Erected near Bingen on the Rhine to commemorate the triumph of Germany over France, and the founding of the empire. The figures at the corners represent the angels of war and of peace.

legislature. It contains three hundred and ninety-seven members, elected by manhood suffrage, one from each electoral district, for a term of five years. The powers of the Reichstag are far from being as large as usually belongs to such a body. It can introduce measures but they are almost certain to be vetoed by the Bundesrath, which guards jealously the privilege of legislative initiative. It cannot go far in the control of even such a fundamental matter as taxation, for revenue measures are not passed annually but when once passed become standing laws, to be set aside only with the consent of the Bundesrath. As for the ministry, it is appointed by the emperor and its most important member is the chancellor. It is responsible for its acts, but rather to the emperor than to the people or the legislature.

The German government like all others has its good and bad sides. It is characterized by honesty and frugality, by justice and an unusual regard for the ordinary welfare of the people. The three great evils of the system are paternalism, police rule, and militarism. Paternalism within certain limits is not necessarily bad, but most people feel that it is carried to an extreme among the Germans. The military tone of German government and society is its most pronounced feature —far more so than in any other country. Some have sought to explain it by the exposed position of Germany geographically among the powers of western Europe, but the real reason for it seems to lie rather in the fact that the Germany of today was made by war and violence, and has never been able to shake herself free from the blood and iron ideal. Constitutional government in Germany is sadly marred by the lack of power in the courts to declare an unconstitutional law void. The consequence is that trial by jury, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and the liberty of holding public meetings exist in no such clearly established manner as in England or the United States. There are scores of things which a person may do with impunity in our own country which he would be promptly imprisoned for doing in Germany. Should one dare go to a harmless church festival or picnic, for instance, without notifying the police he would subject himself to arrest and fine.

The political parties of Germany are numerous and rather complicated. The most important are: (1) the Conservatives, in two branches, which represent in the main the interests of the privileged

classes and together have seventy-two seats in the Reichstag; (2) the Center which assumes to represent exclusively the Catholics and controls one hundred and two seats in the Reichstag—more than any other party; (3) the National Liberals who are supposed to champion the cause of the manufacturing classes and have at present fifty-one seats; (4) the Radicals, in three factions, favoring a purely parliamentary government like that of England and together possessing now but thirty-six seats; and (5) the Socialists, whose history and creed we must now examine, and who have a total of eighty-one representatives in the Reichstag.

It was not until after the revolution of 1848 that the socialistic agitation played any important part in German affairs. The founder of German Socialism was Karl Marx who was born at Treves in 1818, educated at Jena, Bonn, and Berlin, and who died only a little over twenty years ago. Marx was a man of brilliant intellect and though his theories have failed to secure the concurrence of the majority of economists their original and profound character has always made them

PRINCE OTTO VON BISMARCK

Chancellor and adviser to Emperor William I and chief exponent of the "blood and iron" policy which resulted in German unity.

GENERAL VON MOLTKE

Organizer and chief strategist of the German army in the Franco-Prussian War.

important factors in economic discussion. Briefly stated the ideal of Marx was what is known as collectivism. "In savagery," he declared, "each one produces separately for himself; in our recent civilization the many produce mainly for the few; in a more perfect state all will produce collectively for all." The views of Marx were received with favor by many German laboring men, and by students in the universities, and from 1848 on there may be said to have been a definite German socialist movement.

The causes for the movement were partly political and partly economic. The philosophical impetus was given by such men as Fichte and Hegel, the political by the campaign for national and constitutional government, and the economic by the effort to abolish serfdom and to better

the condition of the laboring masses. It was not until manhood suffrage was introduced in the elections for the first Reichstag of the North German Confederation, in 1867, that the Socialists gained

FERDINAND LASSALLE

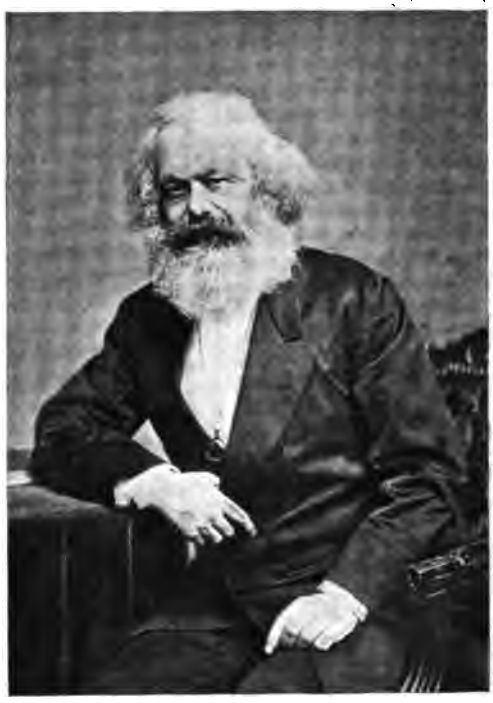
A leader in the Social Democratic movement in Germany. He was killed in a duel in 1864.

their first opening in politics. There were eight socialists in this first Reichstag but as they bitterly opposed the war with France in 1870 on the ground that Alsace-Lorraine was being seized against the will of its inhabitants, they were roundly despised and lost such influence as they might otherwise have had. In the first Reichstag of the new empire (1871) the party had only two representatives, though by 1874 the number had increased to nine, and by 1877 to twelve.

The present organization of the German Socialists, or the German Social Democracy, dates from the Congress of Gotha, held in May, 1875. This congress was due primarily to the desire of two rival factions, the followers of Marx and of Ferdinand Lassalle, to harmonize their efforts in the face of the persecution which Bismarck was beginning to visit upon the Socialists. The congress brought together a hundred and twenty-five delegates, representing more than twenty-five thousand members, and its purposes were achieved with entire success. Two years later the Socialists cast over half a million votes. Bismarck was fairly frightened at the outlook and put forth every effort to crush the movement before it should get beyond his control. Twice he attempted to force a law through the Reichstag which would break up socialistic organizations and render their members liable to punishment, but sentiment against such legislation was too strong. In 1877 and 1878, however, two attempts were made upon the life of the emperor by fanatics, and these gave Bismarck just the opportunity he wanted. The would-be assassins may or may not have been socialists but there is no evidence whatever that their action had the sanction of the Social Democratic party. The party was then, as it is now, committed definitely to a policy of peaceable political methods and not to violence. Nevertheless Bismarck made it appear that the Socialists were directly responsible for the attacks on the emperor and succeeded in arousing strong popular opposition to them. While the excitement was tense he dissolved the Reichstag and secured the election of a legislative body which was absolutely subservient to his will. Vigorous legislation was then begun against the "Red Spectre." "What is wanted," declared the chancellor to the new Reichstag, "is a special enactment which shall subject the right of association and public meeting, the freedom of the press, and the following of particular trades, as well as the liberty of removal from one place to another, to such limitations as shall exclusively operate against the dangerous aims of Social Democracy."

The laws which resulted were of the most stringent character. All Social-Democratic, Socialist, or Communistic societies were expressly prohibited; labor organizations were to be under close police supervision; all Socialist meetings were forbidden, all Socialist newspapers were suppressed and their property confiscated or destroyed; the circulation or possession of Socialist literature was made a crime, and all attempts to propagate Socialist doctrine in any manner were punishable by fine and imprisonment. It was even provided that the government might proclaim a "minor state of siege" over any district and practically establish martial law in order to handle the Socialist problem. This was actually done in Berlin and other large cities and thousands of Socialists were imprisoned and other thousands exiled, many of the latter coming to America where they were active in founding the Socialist movement of the past quarter century in our own country.

The Socialists, perceiving the intense earnestness of the government, decided that to offer resistance would be foolish and only to invite extermination; hence they determined upon the policy of appearing to yield to the inevitable and of keeping up their agitation only under the surface. In this policy they were remarkably successful, for even the vigilant government press was for a long time deceived and loudly proclaimed that Socialism in Germany was forever dead. The fact, however, was far otherwise, for even in the hour of Bismarck's greatest apparent triumph the Socialist propaganda was being pushed vigorously in every corner of the empire. A paper known as the *Social Democrat,* published in Switzerland, was made the official organ of the party. It reached a circulation in Germany of eight thousand copies, each of which was passed from hand to hand and read covertly so as to avoid detection by the government officials. A compact organization was effected, a treasury was established and kept well-filled, and with a good deal of truth the Socialists of today declare that their present superb organization is due in no small degree to the persecution that they underwent in 1877 and for some years thereafter at the hand of the Iron Chancellor. For a very short



KARL MARX
The founder of German Socialism.

time only was there a falling off in the Socialist vote. By 1887 this vote was over three-quarters of a million, and in 1890 it was almost a million and a half. Manifestly the repressive laws had completely failed and they were simply allowed to expire without renewal. Since 1890 the increase of the Socialist vote has been phenomenally rapid and in the elections of 1903, out of a total of nine and a half millions of votes, divided among twelve parties, the Socialists cast considerably more than three millions, or nearly a third. This was a far larger vote than that cast by any other one party. The number of Socialist representatives in the Reichstag is small in proportion to the popular vote because of the unjust ap-

portionment of electoral districts. On account of the fear of Socialist domination the government has not allowed the distribution of representatives to be changed since the establishment of the empire. The

WILLIAM II
Emperor of Germany.

constitution provides for electoral districts of a hundred thousand people each, and if this were put into effect the Social Democrats would have in the Reichstag, not eighty-one delegates, but a hundred and thirty, and the Center, or Catholic party, would have about seventy-five instead of one hundred and two. The Socialists were the only party that made any gains whatever in the elections of 1903.

The organization of the German Social Democracy is interesting because it involves the employment of many principles which the Socialists would like to see applied to the state. The supreme governing body of the party is a congress composed of six delegates from each electoral district, the members of the Reichstag, and of the executive committee of the party. This congress has the power to regulate the organization of the party and to take action upon all propositions submitted to it by the party members. The chief local officer of the party is the *Vertrauensman* or "trusted man," who is elected by a mass-meeting of the party members in his locality and who is responsible for the success of the district organization, for carrying on the propaganda, and for collecting dues from the members. In the cities the Socialists have enlisted the wage-earners almost in a body, though they have thus far made little progress among the country laborers, except recently in Saxony.

We must now take a glance at the demands made by the Socialists of the present day, for it is in these that we find best reflected the social conditions in Germany which there is the largest desire to change. The program of the German Socialists is different from that of Socialists in other countries only in so far as German conditions are peculiar. Germany is the classic land of socialism and to a large degree the socialism of other countries today is really a German product. If one wishes to get at the root of the Socialist position in Germany he must study the Erfurter Program, adopted October 20, 1891—a document which has served as a model upon which the platform of the Socialist parties of all countries, including the United States, have been constructed. The fundamental principles here laid down are as follows:

Nothing but the conversion of capitalist private ownership of the means of production—the earth and its fruits, mines and quarries, raw material, tools and machines, means of exchange—into social ownership, and the substitution of Socialist production, carried on by and for society in the place of the present production of commodities of exchange, can effect such a revolution that, instead of the large industries and the steadily growing capacities of common production being, as hitherto, a source of misery and oppression to the classes whom they have despoiled, they may become a source of

the highest well-being and of perfect harmony. The German Social Democrats are not, therefore, fighting for new class privileges and rights, but for the abolition of class government, and even of classes themselves, and for universal equality in rights and duties, without distinction of sex or rank. Holding these views, they are not merely fighting against the exploitation and oppression of the wage-earners in the existing social order, but against every kind of exploitation and oppression, whether directed against class, party, sex, or race.

More specific demands of the German Social Democrats may be enumerated thus:

1. Universal, equal, and direct suffrage by ballot in all elections for all subjects of the empire over twenty years of age, without distinction of sex; proportional representation, biennial elections to the Reichstag; payment of representatives.

2. Direct legislation by the people through the use of the right of initiative and of veto; self-government by the people in empire, state, province, and commune; an annual vote of taxes.

3. Universal military education; substitution of a militia for a standing army; decision of questions of peace and war by the Reichstag; decision of all international disputes by arbitration.

4. Abolition of all laws that restrict freedom of speech and the right of public assembly.

5. Abolition of all laws that put women, whether in a private or public capacity, at a disadvantage as compared with men.

6. Declaration that religion is a private matter; abolition of all expenditure of public funds for ecclesiastical purposes.

7. Secularization of education; compulsory attendance at public schools; free education, free supply of educational apparatus, and free maintenance of children in schools and of such students in higher institutions as prove themselves fitted for higher education.

8. Free administration of the law by judges elected by the people; compensation to persons unjustly accused, imprisoned, or condemned; abolition of capital punishment.

9. Income, property, and inheritance taxes to meet all public expenses that are to be met by taxation; abolition of all indirect taxation, customs duties, and other measures which sacrifice the interests of the people at large to those of the small minority.

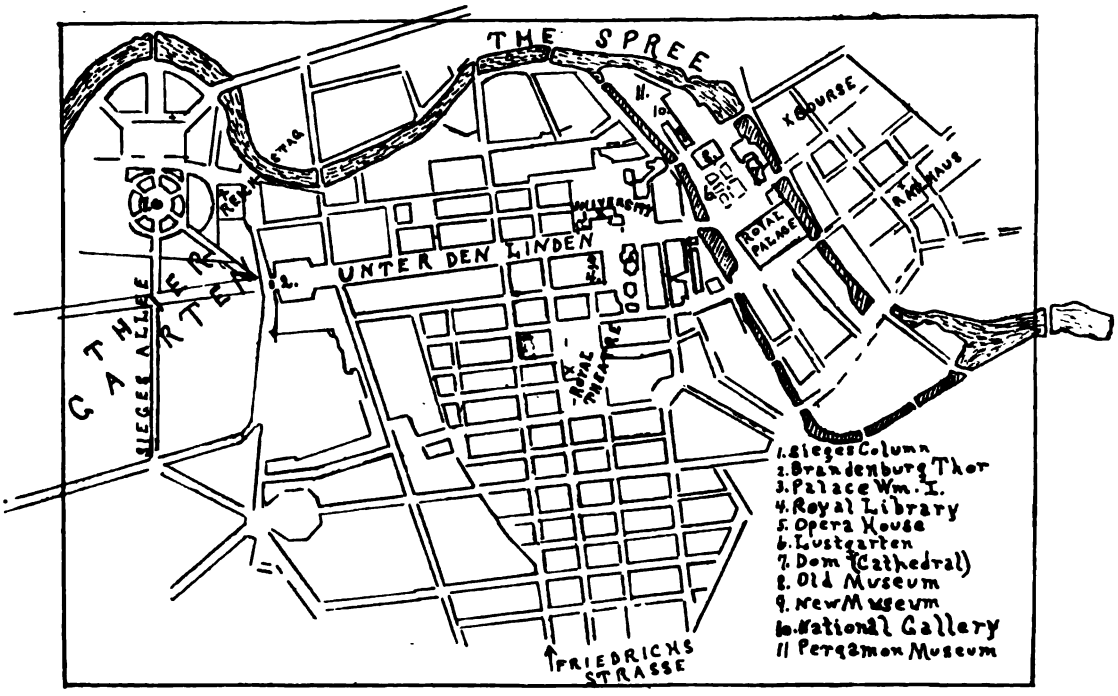
10. A national system of protection of labor on the basis of a working day of not more than eight hours, the prohibition

FERDINAND AUGUST BEBEL
One of the leaders of the Social Democratic Party in Germany today.

of the employment of children under fourteen years of age, and the prohibition of night work, except where absolutely necessary; supervision of all industrial establishments and regulation of the conditions of labor by government departments and bureaus; confirmation of the rights of laboring men to form organizations.

In the campaign of 1903 the program of the Socialists was summed up briefly in these words: "Our goal is the bringing in of the Socialist state and a social order founded upon social property in the means of labor with the duty of labor for all its members, and the creation of a political and social condition in which truth, justice, equality, and welfare of all will be the guiding motive of all acts."

The Socialists of Germany are not anarchists; they believe in the rule of law and order. They are not communists; they believe in the retention of private



SKETCH MAP OF BERLIN

Berlin is probably the best lighted and cleanest city in the world, and its admirable police system gives a secure feeling of protection most restful to an inhabitant of one of our own large cities where holdups, burglaries, and other outrages are still every day occurrences. The policemen of Berlin do not "patrol beats," they are stationed at the crossings, at intervals of, at most, two city blocks. The police are on foot in the residence or less crowded districts and are mounted on horseback in those regions where crowds habitually congregate. If any one for any reason desires to appeal to authority, there is no chasing up one street and down another on a vain hunt for an elusive policeman, at the time safely ensconced in some sheltering saloon. In Berlin, by the way, there are no "saloons," in the American sense of the word. All restaurants and cafés serve wine and beer, but drinking at other than meal times is not as common as here, and the use of strong alcoholic liquors far more limited, which partially explains the fact that one very rarely sees an intoxicated person in the streets.

Another admirably managed department of the public service is the letter post. Hundreds of branch offices make it easy to get stamps of all kinds; mail is delivered at nearly every hour during the day in the residence districts, as well as business centers. The money order department is so organized that the person to whom the money is sent receives the actual cash counted out on his table by the postman, so that there need be no time lost, as here, by a trip to the main post-office and the bothersome identification of the addressee. The pneumatic *Rohrpost* expedites letters practically at the speed of a telegram. The handling of packages is a separate branch of the mail service, and, as a special detachment of the carrier-force is assigned to deliver packages, greater latitude can be given as to weight, size, and contents than can be permitted in this country, where one poor letter-carrier is weighted down with any and all letters, papers, and packages destined for his

route; which system, at holiday time, turns our postmen into veritable pack-horses.

There is published daily in Berlin a small newspaper called the *Fremdenblatt* (Stranger's Sheet). This will be found of great use to tourists, for it gives a list of galleries, museums, theaters and concerts, exhibitions, in fact sights and opportunities of all sorts that are of interest to the visitor. Here, too, one finds the hours and price of admission and all other necessary data. The *Fremdenblatt* is even more reliable than the indispensable "Baedeker" because it is more frequently revised.

In this connection a word should be said about the newspapers of Berlin. There are a great many of them, representing an almost endless variety of political opinion, literary, artistic, and social interest. Some of the most important of these appear several times a day and maintain a public bulletin room where the passer-by may enter and from his comfortable seat watch the quick succession of news-items as they are thrown on the screen. The Berlin newspapers are exceptionally well informed and free from sensationalism. Headlines never exceed the limits of modesty. No paper makes a special feature of crime and scandal, criminal court notices and the like. There is observed a scrupulous avoidance of anything that might act on the minds of the vicious as a hypnotic suggestion to go and do likewise.

Any large city with an endless stream of tourists pouring through it is bound to be amply supplied with hotels of all sizes and kinds. Berlin is no exception. In selecting a hotel the traveler can fairly trust the list submitted by his "Baedeker." A hotel *zweiten Ranges* (of the second class) will satisfy the greater number of travelers in respect to price, comfort, and cleanliness. Women traveling by themselves cannot do better than to stop at the Hospice of the City Mission *(Hospiz der Berliner Stadtmission)* which splendidly managed hotel is run for the financial benefit of the City Mission. For those who prefer more seclusion than a hotel affords, there are several excellent board-

GLIMPSE OF THE SPREE, BERLIN

THE SIEGESALLEE (AVENUE OF VICTORY), BERLIN
Given by the present Emperor, William II, to his people.

ing houses called *Pensions*. If neither of these arrangements strikes the fancy of the visitor, and if, being somewhat familiar with the language, he desires to become more familiar with the customs of the people and do as the natives do, he can take a furnished room in any chosen neighborhood—by preference in the western part of the city—have his breakfast served there, go to a restaurant for dinner, and choose between several schemes for his evening meal. There are throughout the city so-called *Delicatessenhandlungen*, shops where are displayed for sale, in the most tempting array, cold roasts of all kinds, salads, small glass dishes with meats in aspic, with an endless variety of cheese and sausages. In Germany gentle-folk are not expected to carry bundles of any kind, and if the stranger desires to follow this unwritten law he gives his orders to the house-servant who presently returns with an appetizing array of meat, rolls, butter, cakes, etc.—for almost all over Europe it is possible for one to buy just the amount of anything that one wishes for immediate use; one is not compelled to buy a dozen eggs if one wants to eat two eggs, or a pound of butter when one wants enough to spread on a couple of pieces of bread. The markets even carry the scheme so far as to sell to one customer the breast of a turkey, goose, or other bird, to another the wings, and so on, the inferior cuts selling very cheap of course. This arrangement must be particularly acceptable not only to the tourist but also to the poor of the city, who have no accommodations for the care of "left-overs" and who would otherwise be forced often to waste food as we constantly hear is being done by our own poor.

Certain businesses are divided in Germany in a way quite unusual with us. For example, in a bakery one finds breads and rolls of various kinds, but cakes and sweets are a separate branch of the trade, and are found in special confectioners' shops. It is customary in many families to have the bread and cakes mixed at home and then taken to the bakery or confectionery for baking. One frequently sees on the street in Berlin a maid-servant hurrying along with a large cake all ready

to be popped into the oven. Then again, no apothecary's shop is a general store as is invariably the rule here. It is a place where prescriptions are compounded and medicaments sold. No cigars, candy, soda-water, soap, perfumery, etc., are to be had over its counters; each of these commodities must be purchased in a special shop that deals in cigars, or in candy, etc., and in nothing else. All business is

ROYAL PLAYHOUSE, BERLIN

thus differentiated in Germany, though of late large and gaudy department stores after the American pattern, have been introduced also. If, however, the visitor gets too homesick for a drug store such as he is used to at home, Berlin can accommodate him, for on Potsdamerstrasse is a real American drug store with its many more than "fifty-seven varieties" of wares.

The shops are many and varied, and the shop-windows are often so artistically and beautifully arranged that it is hard not to spend too much time admiring them. If you would purchase as well as admire you can be sure of finding first class goods in any shop bearing the title *Hoflieferant* (purveyor to the court).

No street and no scene in Berlin is marred by the hideous bill-board, one of the banes of this country. Of course musical and theatrical performances must be announced in some convenient way that he who runs may read, and so at many corners and various other places, you find the so-called *Litfassäulen*, cylindrical structures rather attractive than otherwise in their gay covering of variegated announcements. And there are plenty such, for Berlin has twenty-five regular theaters, and, in addition, its daily program of musical treats is almost without a limit.

Of the many playhouses a considerable proportion cultivate the classical and serious modern drama, loyal to the German tradition which regards the theater, to use the words of Schiller, as a *"moralische Anstalt," i. e.*, an institute for moral discipline. The masterpieces of Schiller, Goethe, Kleist, Grillparzer, Hebbel, but also those of the great English, French, and Spanish dramatists, nay even the imperishable works of the great triad of Greek tragedians, are standing features of these theaters; notably rich is the repertory in Shakespearian plays. The Königliches Schauspielhaus (Royal Playhouse) is primarily devoted to the classics, and next to them to the moderns of the classicist school; against the modern naturalists, like Hauptmann, and against plays of pronounced social type, like those of Sudermann, the doors are conservatively barred. It is perhaps worthy of mention that the legitimate stage has the approval

IMPERIAL OPERA HOUSE, BERLIN

The cylindrical structure in the foreground is one of the Litfassäulen upon which theatrical announcements are posted.

HALL OF THE REICHSTAG, BERLIN

of the established church and that the clergy are frequent visitors to the Royal Playhouse. The true sanctum of contemporary dramatism is the Deutsche Theater (German Theater), the rallying ground of the foremost exponents of realistic acting. The Lessing, Berliner, Neue, and Kleine theaters are likewise modern in their tendency, while the two Schiller theaters, situated in two of the most densely populated districts, have a distinctive educational aim, in that they provide high class dramatic entertainment at, or, in fact, below the actual cost of production.

Berlin has now three regular opera houses, so that the music-lover may, in the course of a season, become acquainted with the greater number of the best serious operas. In addition there is hardly ever an evening when you cannot hear a concert of the highest order; indeed, during the winter so rich is the musical offering prepared for each evening that it requires no little self-denial to decide which delight one shall enjoy; a symphony concert directed by Nikisch, Mottl, or Weingartner, a more popular program rendered under some nearly as famous leader, a military band concert, or one of a large assortment of vocal and instrumental artists' recitals.

Scores of young musicians, struggling for recognition, have learned that their reception by a critical Berlin audience is an almost final test of their ability, and that a success in Berlin is a sufficient boom to start with *éclat* their career in any other city. Consequently these embryonic virtuosi pay large sums for the rental of some popular recital hall and engage some wellknown artist, or even part of an orchestra to fill out the program, so as to keep the audience in a kindly frame of mind favorable to their own efforts. For a Berlin audience is nothing if not critical when listening to a musical or theatrical performance, and it is intelligently critical, too, in the highest degree. No clap-trap device, no cheap reference to some fetish of the popular mind arouses it to enthusiasm, and no stage setting however beautiful and natural brings out wild applause as it does on our stage even when there is no human soul in sight to acknowledge it.

The tourist who would keep himself informed on the bewilderingly numerous musical treats can best do so by an occasional inspection of the bulletins which line the entrance of the office of Bote und Bock, No. 37 Leipzigerstrasse, where tickets for any concert may be had in advance. In Berlin it is well to act promptly in making the selection and purchase of tickets, as even the largest concert hall, the Philharmonie, is almost regularly sold out.

It is generally admitted that the best points from which to get a bird's-eye view of Berlin are the tower of the Rathaus, near the palace, and the gallery around the top of the Column of Victory which stands outside the Brandenburg Gate in the Königplatz. This column was erected to commemorate the victories of the Franco-Prussian War, and in the flutings half way up are arranged three tiers of gilded cannon which have been captured at various times from the enemy.

RATHAUS (CITY HALL), BERLIN

But a short distance from this monument is the magnificent Reichstagsgebäude (Hall of the Imperial Diet), the finest modern building in Berlin. Before it stands Begas' statue of Bismarck (unveiled in the summer of 1901), a fitting memorial in bronze to the Iron Chancellor. Other famous monuments of Berlin are Schlüter's equestrian statue of the Great Elector, on the Lange Brücke (the Long Bridge south of the Royal Palace), considered by many the finest monument in Berlin, and interesting, too, because it is the first large bronze that was successfully cast; the statue of Frederick the Great by Rauch (Unter den Linden opposite the Palace of Emperor William I), and the quite barbarically splendid national monument erected to William I. This gorgeous memorial is very unfortunately placed, being almost crowded in between the Royal Palace and the great warehouses which practically form the background for the monument in spite of the large peristyle erected to prevent this very effect. The statue was unveiled on the one hundredth anniversary of the birth of the old emperor and represents him mounted on a horse, the bridle in the hand of a female figure typifying peace.

STATUE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT, BERLIN

The great public park of Berlin, the beautiful Tiergarten, was formerly a game preserve, the private property of the house of Hohenzollern. Frederick the Great made it a public park and today it is a constant joy to the populace of Berlin, in summer with its shady, well-kept walks and drives, and in winter with its numerous ponds for skating.

The Siegesallee (Avenue of Victory) in the Tiergarten is the gift of the present emperor to the people. It is a broad drive lined on both sides with heroic marble statues of all the rulers of the Brandenburg land. Back of each monarch on semi-circular marble benches are busts of the two greatest men of each reign. It is rather startling to the American mind that a monarch like Frederick William IV should be honored with a full length statue, while such a man as Alexander von Humboldt must be content with a modest bust because he was not born to the purple. The streets bordering the Tiergarten form the second most fashionable and very most beautiful residence quarter of Berlin. The houses here are detached villas set in lovely gardens, perfect little parks, while on the Wilhelm-

UNTER DEN LINDEN, WITH STATUE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT

strasse, the most aristocratic street, the surroundings are much less attractive.

But no other single street in Berlin can compare in interest with Unter den Linden, flanked as it is with well-known buildings and convenient to almost everything the stranger wants to see. This famous street starts on the west at the Brandenburg Gate which separates it from the Tiergarten. The Brandenburg Gate is an imitation of the Propylæa at Athens. The Quadriga that surmounts it was captured by the French and carried to Paris in 1807, but was brought back by Blücher in 1814.

It would be tedious to name here all the well-known buildings standing almost cheek by jowl Unter den Linden. "Baedeker" and most other guidebooks describe a walk along this street, step by step, and it would be impossible to find a cab-driver who could not give his fare all information regarding the present and past of these buildings. Therefore we shall only refer here to such as are most interesting and important.

Back of the palace of Emperor William I stands the Royal Library. The building itself though dignified is not remarkable; most interesting, however, are its contents, for here we find, among other treasures, the manuscript of Luther's translation of the Bible, Gutenberg's Bible on parchment, and Melanchthon's report of the Diet of Worms.

On the opposite side of Unter den Linden, somewhat back from the street, is the University, a building begun in 1748 and completed in 1766, a Hohenzollern palace until converted to university purposes in 1809. Next to the University stands a small, low building,

VICTORY COLUMN

At the end of the Siegesallee. Note the three tiers of captured cannon.

the Guard House. It is interesting to see the guard changed at noon each day, and here too, or in the Lustgarten (Pleasure Garden) near by, band concerts are frequently given. The Lustgarten is enclosed on three sides by important structures; on the north is the Old Museum, on the east the New Cathedral, not yet entirely completed, and on the south the Royal Palace, occupied by the emperor and his family when they are in Berlin.

PALACE OF EMPEROR WILLIAM I, SHOWING CORNER OF THE IMPERIAL LIBRARY.

The Emperor's study, from the window of which it was his custom to watch and salute the passing guard, is on the ground floor at the left.

ROYAL PALACE, BERLIN

ROYAL MUSEUM, BERLIN

With view of the bridge across the Spree and the Lustgarten.

NATIONAL GALLERY AND FRIEDRICHSBRUECKE, BERLIN

It is worth while to see the interior of one royal residence, if only for curiosity's sake, and if one has not already sated the natural interest of one born in a democracy for everything pertaining to royalty by means of a tour through the stiff, tasteless, and gorgeous rooms of some other royal abode, he may as well accompany the pompous liveried guide waiting in the vestibule to conduct visitors through the show part of the Berlin palace. But let no trusting soul be deceived by the printed notice that these guides do not take tips, because as a matter of fact they are in no wise different in this respect from their fellow flunkeys all over the empire.

One should remember in Berlin, and in other cities too, that it is best to purchase catalogues, programs, etc., *inside* the museum, picture gallery, or theater one is about to visit, as those sold outside by criers are apt to be out of date or incorrect.

The outside of the Old Museum is of far greater interest to the tourist than the inside. This beautiful building is approached by a wide flight of stone steps adorned with splendid statuary, and its stately portico is rendered yet more attractive by elaborate frescoes.

The New Museum is back of the Old Museum and is connected with it by a covered gallery above the street. Kaulbach's great mural paintings in the grand vestibule attract more attention probably than anything else in the New Museum.

Close by these two museums, separated from them in fact by a little park or garden, is the National Gallery which contains famous canvases by great modern artists: Menzel, Böcklin, Lenbach, Liebermann,and many others, and interesting and beautiful masterpieces of sculpture as well. Besides these permanent exhibitions there are many galleries, large and small, where loan and sale exhibitions are held.

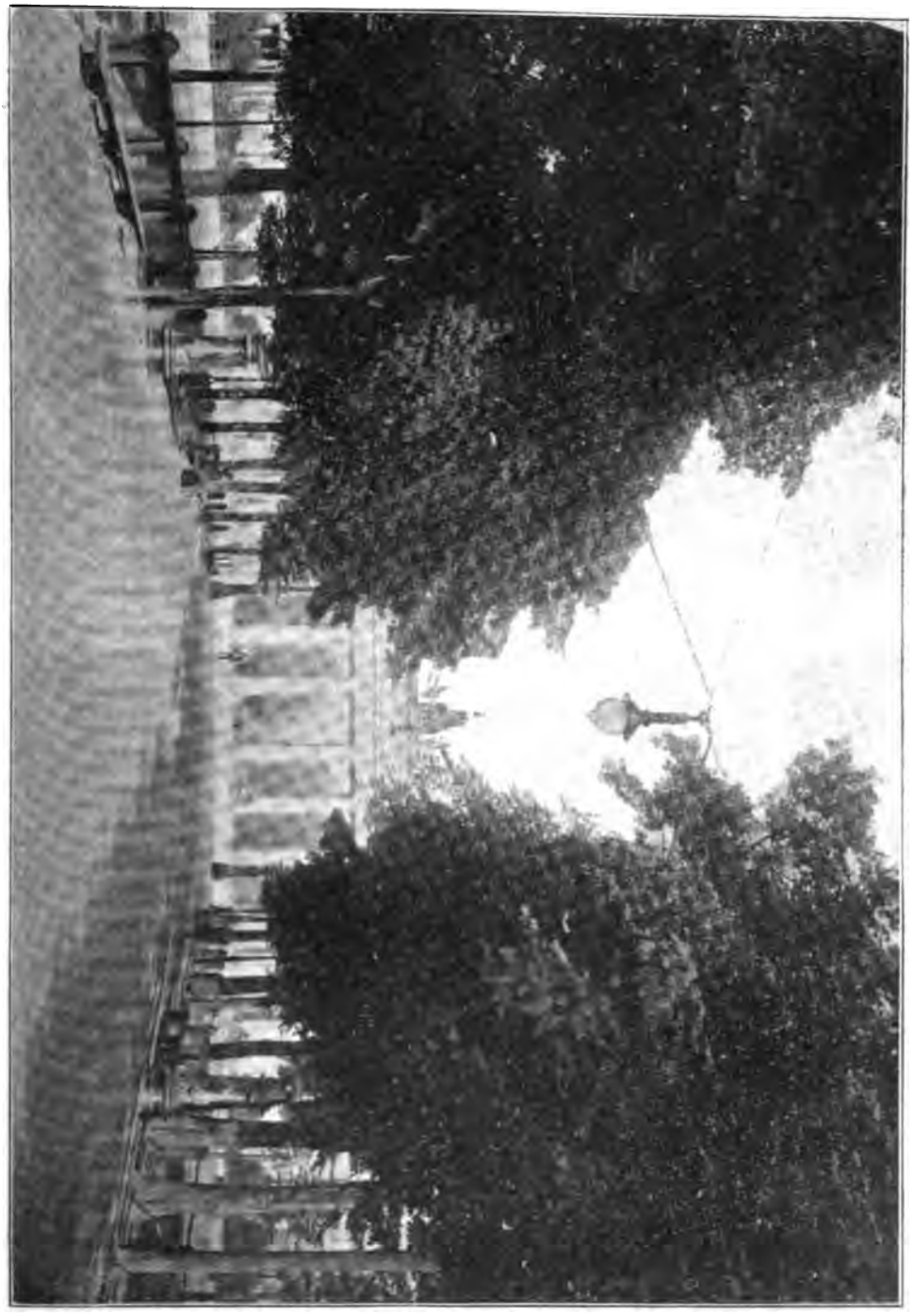
The other museums which best repay a visit are the Kunstgewerbe-Museum (Museum of Industrial Art) with its partly permanent, partly varying array of industrial art treasures; the Museum für Völkerkunde (Ethnographical Museum) where, along with other interesting objects, one may see the relics found by Schliemann on the site of ancient Troy, and the Hohenzollern Museum in the Palace of Montbijou, near the National Gallery and the Stock Exchange. The Exchange is a dignified and stately building and is said to be the first stone structure erected in Berlin.

The Botanical Garden in Berlin was founded in 1679 and is one of the most extensive in Europe. The palm houses and other hot-houses are the most interesting feature. They are, however, closed much of the time and the garden itself is in no way remarkable to the eye of the layman.

The Zoölogical Garden on the other hand is so admirable in every detail that it is well worth a careful inspection. The architecture, the landscape gardening, all has been so carefully planned to make fitting and appropriate surroundings for the exotic birds and beasts there housed, and so many and varied are the species represented, that we may safely say that Berlin has a model zoölogical garden.

The immediate surroundings of Berlin are just as fascinating and just as time-absorbing as is the city itself. Charlottenburg with its porcelain and stained glass factories, its palace and park and famous mausoleum, the Grunewald, a beautiful large forest, with lakes, shady walks, and delightful villas, and Potsdam with its many little gems of palaces, for generations the summer residence of Prussian rulers. So popular indeed is Potsdam with the present emperor that he lives there almost the whole year.

The foreign visitor, especially if a teacher, will not wish to part from the German capital without having looked somewhat into the splendidly organized and conducted educational system. For this purpose it is advisable to come fortified with some professional recommenda-



THE BRANDENBURG GATE AS SEEN FROM UNTER DEN LINDEN

PALACE OF SANS SOUCI, POTSDAM
Where Frederick the Great entertained Voltaire.

SARCOPHAGUS OF EMPEROR WILLIAM I AT CHARLOTTENBURG

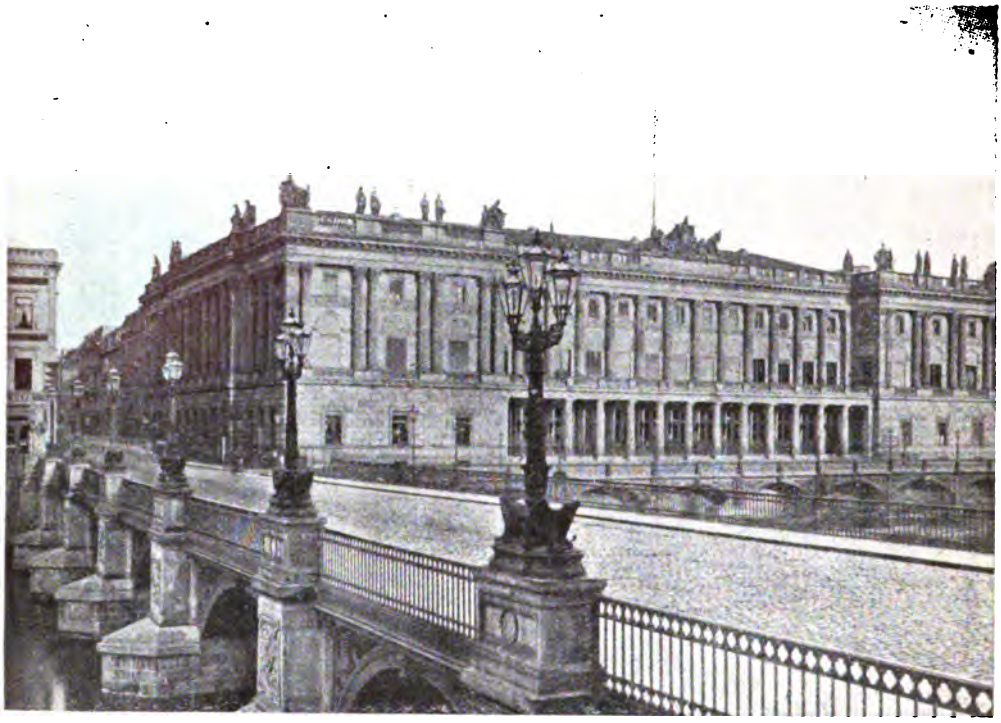
PALACE AT CHARLOTTENBURG

tion, preferably with the stamped or sealed certificate of the home president or superintendent, since promiscuous or too frequent visiting is not favored, it being regarded as a disturbing factor in school life. On the whole, German education, notwithstanding American opinion to the contrary, is more diversified than our own. A good plan might be to visit some one school of each prominent type, beginning with the Kindergarten. Boys and girls are taught separately in the public schools. Those specially interested in secondary and higher education should pay a visit to a *Gymnasium,* a *Realschule,* and a *Realgymnasium.* If time permits a Girls' College *(Mädchengymnasium),* a Normal School for men or one for women *(Lehrer-,* or *Lehrerinnen-Seminar)* should also be visited.*

Admission to single lectures in the University is usually permitted without any preliminaries. Here in each department, some of the greatest among the world's scholars may be heard lecturing to student audiences numbered by the hundreds. More than 10,000 students are in attendance at the University of Berlin, which, it should be borne in mind, is, like the twenty-one other German universities, strictly a graduate school. In this imposing enrollment the students of engineering and other applied sciences are not in-

*To the scientist, the chief attraction of Charlottenburg is the Imperial Physical and Technical Institute or Reichsanstalt which illustrates one of the beneficent aspects of a paternal government. "Here is a splendid establishment of buildings, set in spacious grounds, an equipment of its kind perhaps without a parallel anywhere in the world, having a staff of ninety-five professors, scientific assistants, expert mechanicians, etc., and yet without a single student." The institution is devoted to pure research in the realm of physics, and in the technical department to the perfecting of mechanical processes. Facilities for the most exact measurements make its results of the greatest value to scientists and progressive manufacturers in all parts of the world.

Siemens, the great German inventor, gave the first ground for the building and the government, appreciating the value of such an institution, added its liberal support. Von Helmholtz, the most distinguished scientist of his time, became its first president, being succeeded by Professor Kohlrausch who with him had organized the work of the institution.



THE BOURSE, OR EXCHANGE, BERLIN

cluded, This class of students receive their training in polytechnics and special technical schools for agriculture, forestry, special industries, etc. The (graduate) students at the Polytechnic School in Berlin-Charlottenburg almost equal in number those at the University. The magnificent building of that famous technologic institution, by the way, is the largest extant edifice devoted to educational purposes.

The American contingent at all the German schools of the high grades, especially the medical and science-and-arts (philosophic) departments of the universities, technologic schools, academies of fine arts, and conservatories of music is remarkably large and continually increasing. A direct, though slight, contact with the excellent school system as it may be had in Berlin, because practically all forms and aspects of German education are there represented, will not fail to convince the intelligent observer of its admirable thoroughness. He will learn to appreciate the fact that not only is it the German schoolmaster to whom, as the saying has it, the credit for the battles of Königgrätz and Sedan is due, but that the educational system of the Germans is largely responsible for their imposing, in some respects, unprecedented and unparalleled achievements in industrial, commercial, and other peaceable pursuits.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What object lesson is presented by the Kreuzberg? 2. How do police regulations in Berlin contrast with ours? 3. How is the efficiency of the postal service shown? 4. What is the *Fremdenblatt?* 5. What is true of the Berlin newspapers? 6. What are some of the characteristic features of Berlin markets? 7. What musical and dramatic attractions does the city offer? 8. What are some of the most important buildings of Berlin? 9. What attractions do the suburbs of Berlin offer? 10. What types of schools make up the system of education?

SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What fourteen cities in Germany have a population of over 200,000? 2. What is the

Goethebund ? 3. How did Harvard secure its Germanic Museum, and what is the nature of the collections? 4. Who has been called the German Huxley and why? 5. Who is the present ambassador of the United States to Germany? 6. In what other European courts does the representative of the United States rank as "ambassador"?

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THE UNIVERSITY, BERLIN

Schumann and His Music

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THE student who has followed with diligence our studies in the development of music, and who has added to that study some thought about the causes that produced the various schools of composers, will now be prepared to take up the subject of Romantic Music. Let us preface this article by saying that there has been romantic feeling in music from earliest times; when we speak of the Romanticists, however, we mean a school of writers that flourished in Germany about 1830 and that expressed certain phases of life in a distinct and individual style. Although the German Romanticists were much decried in their own time, and were thought by many people to be idle dreamers—scatter-brains who wanted to turn the world upside down—they were the natural heirs of the men who just preceded them, and the evolution of their ideas was a perfectly natural sequence.

It has been noted that underneath the intellectual life of Europe in the early nineteenth century lay the idea of personal freedom. The French Revolution had opened the eyes of the world to the potentialities of the mass of humanity, to the weakness and corruption of that small section which comprised the governing class, and had given to the inarticulate mass a voice.

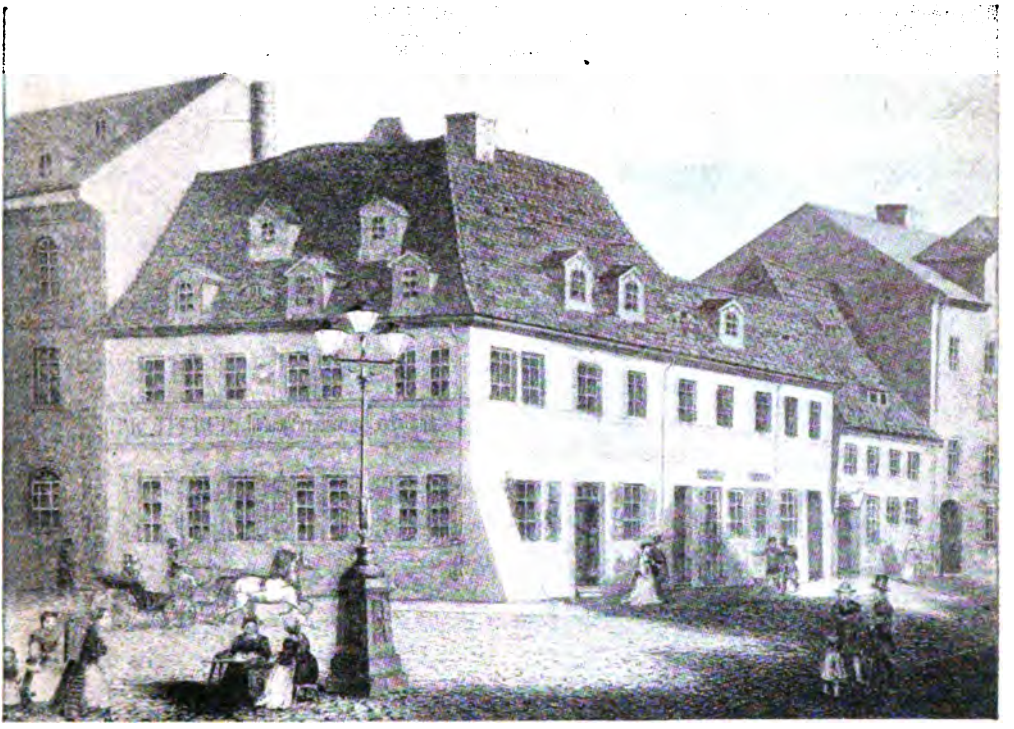
Beethoven stands as the great nonconformist and apostle of freedom of that period; his compositions made for intellectual freedom; his voice was continually raised against the deadening effect of conventionality and .hide-bound tradition. Following this period of storm and stress comes the time we are now engaged in studying.

Let us first glance at Schumann's early life and training in order to get some insight into the conditions surrounding him. His father was a book seller, and, in a small way, an author, and the family was a well-to-do and cultivated one. Robert Schumann, the youngest son, was brought up in an atmosphere of books, browsing about in his father's shop, and attracted almost equally to poetry and music. He began composing at the age of seven, and was soon after an ardent admirer of Byron and Jean Paul Richter. After schooling at the Zwickau *Gymnasium, he matriculated at Leipzig University, and, in 1829, went to Hamburg to study law.

*The name given in Gemany to schools preparatory to the universities.

This is the eighth of a series of nine articles on "German Master Musicians." The complete list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Bach (September), by William Armstrong. Handel (October), Haydn (November), Mozart (December), Beethoven I (January), Beethoven II (February), Schubert (March), Schumann (April), Wagner (May), by Thomas Whitney Surette.



BIRTHPLACE OF ROBERT SCHUMANN IN ZWICKAU

His interest in music, however, increased steadily, and in 1830, he secured his mother's consent to withdraw from Heidelberg and devote himself exclusively to pianoforte playing and composition under Friedrich Wieck in Leipzig. An injury to his hand necessitated his giving up pianoforte playing, and from almost the beginning of his stay in Leipzig until 1840 he devoted himself to pianoforte composition and to criticism. An account of his critical writings and of the "Davidsbundler" (an association of young spirits intent on reforming things musical in Germany) may be found in Mr. Hadow's "Studies in Modern Music," first series. The newspaper, *"Neue Zeitschrift für Music," established by Schumann and his friends came to occupy the most important place in musical journalism in Germany.

In 1840 Schumann married Clara Wieck, daughter of his old teacher, and his life after that period was devoted almost entirely to composition. The year immediately following his marriage brought forth his finest songs, which were succeeded by Symphonies, String Quartets, the great pianoforte Quintet, Op. 44, the beautiful choral work "Das Paradies und die Peri," and many other noble compositions.

The neo-romantic movement, as we find it in Jean Paul Richter, Heine, and Schumann is a kind of protest against the old, didactic point of view, a hatred of pedantry, a protest against conventionality either in manners or morals. Jean Paul (as Richter was commonly called) was a most fantastic person whose writings were at first merely laughed at, but finally made their way and proved that wisdom does not always pull a long face. The titles of some of his essays were calculated, it must be admitted, to astonish his readers: "Biographical Recreations under the Cranium of a Giantess" was

*Schumann's essays and criticisms in this paper have been published in book form under the title "Music and Musicians," by Robert Schumann, and may be had in English translation. See Bibliography.

one; another was called "Selections from the Papers of the Devil." Carlyle says of his works, in "Jean Paul Richter," from "German Romance," Vol. II:

ROBERT SCHUMANN
June 8, 1810—July 29, 1856.

The first aspect of these peculiarities cannot prepossess us in his favor; we are too forcibly reminded of theatrical clap-traps and literary quackery; nor on opening one of the works themselves is the case much mended. Piercing gleams of thought do not escape us; singular truths conveyed in a form as singular; grotesque and often truly ludicrous delineations; pathetic, magnificent, far-sounding passages; . . . all the elements, in short, of a glorious intellect, but dashed together in such wild arrangement that their order seems the very ideal of confusion. . . . His subject is Life; his chosen study has been Man. Few have known the world better, or taken at once a clearer and a kindlier view of its concerns. . . . . His very contempt, of which he is by no means incapable or sparing, is placid and tolerant; his affection is warm, tender, comprehensive, not dwelling among the high places of the world, nor blind to its objects when found among the poor and lowly. . . . In his humor he sports with the highest and lowest, he can play at bowls with the sun and the moon.*

Heine, the great lyric poet of that period, born a Jew, denying the faith of his fathers to become a Christian, and then an entire unbeliever, finally came back to "the simple belief in the personal God of the common man," and everywhere in the romantic writers we see the belief in the inviolability of the human soul, and the idea of a revolt against the rationalism, the pedantry, the formalism of the time. With them a poor organ grinder was a worthy subject of a poem; a flower in a window-box, a parting of friends, a mill stream babbling on its course—all humble things, all natural events and circumstances they touched with the magic wand of fancy. The reader is especially advised to read the essay on "Schumann" in Hadow's "Studies in Modern Music" (first series) where a discussion may be found of the essential characteristics of the Romantic School as they were expressed by †Heine:

"The plastic figures in antique Art,"

*The "Life of Quintus Fixlein," by Richter may be found in Carlyle's "German Romance," Vol. II, in English translation.

†See page 204 in Mr. Hadow's book.

CLARA WIECK
Who became Schumann's wife.

says Heine, "are identical with the thing represented. The wanderings of the Odyssey mean nothing more than the wanderings of the man called Odysseus, the son of Laertes and the husband of Penelope. It is otherwise in Romantic Art; here the wanderings of the knight have an esoteric signification; they typify, perhaps, the mazes of life in general. The dragon that is vanquished is sin; the almond tree that wafts its fragrance to the hero is the Trinity. . . . Classical Art had to portray only the finite, and its form could be identical with an artist's idea. Romantic Art had to represent, or rather to typify, the infinite and the spiritual, and therefore was compelled to have recourse to a system of traditional or parabolic symbols." So it is with music. The tunes in a sonata of Mozart are satisfied to be beautiful melodies and nothing more: no question arises as to their meaning or character. The tunes of Schumann, like the colors of Rossetti, are always trembling on the verge of symbolism.

The expression of these ideas in the music of Schumann cannot, of course, be as easily demonstrated as in the case of literature. However fantastic Richter and Heine may be, their message is rendered tangible by the medium of language, whereas Schumann's contribution to the Romantic Movement is, of necessity, of a less definite kind. But we shall be able to trace without difficulty certain characteristics of the new style, and the first selection, Schumann's *"Nachstücke," Op. 23, No. 4, will serve for an illustration of these.

It will be well to note first that the use of titles such as "Nocturne," "Romance," etc., is one of the signs of the change taking place in music. Instead of "Sonatas," for the pianoforte, composers began to turn to shorter forms, just as, in literature, the three volume novel began to give place to shorter novels and the short story.

This "Nachstücke" is a good illustration of Schumann's style and seems to show us, also, that he deals with a different type of idea from that to be found in the music of his predecessors. The opening strain of this piece is a tender melody full of simple feeling and untouched by conventionality. As compared with Beethoven's pianoforte pieces it is much less serious in its purpose; as compared with similar pieces of Schubert it is less naive. One feels, in listening to it, that it speaks a new message, that it is less obvious, that it somehow touches a personal note. With the more obvious melodies of the earlier composers there is an element of narrative that is lacking here.

In the middle section of this piece we have music that reveals Schumann's long studies in Bach, who was the young composer's idol. This section of the piece is written in free †counterpoint: *i.e.*, the different parts, or voices, enter not in strict order and sequence as in the Fugue, but irregularly and with partial chord formations accompanying them. At the end of measure ‡(22), where the signature of four flats occurs, the left hand has a phrase of four notes which is immediately repeated in the right hand. In the two or three succeeding measures this imitation may be further observed. At *Tempo I* the original theme returns in somewhat curtailed form making the third part of the simple three part form we have before characterized by the formula A. B. A. The distinction between this simple form and the highly developed three part Sonata Form in which the first movement of the Fifth Symphony of Beethoven is written must be kept in mind by the student. This distinction was plainly stated by the author in his article on "Haydn" in the November CHAUTAUQUAN.

The Coda of this "Nachstücke" will repay examination. Instead of a series

*Commonly known as a Nocturne. This piece may be had for 20 cents. It is also published in the form of a roll for the pianola.

†See article in the September and October numbers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

‡Numbers in parenthesis always refer to the corresponding measures of the music. Students should number their music to correspond.

of more or less meaningless chords we find here a mysterious and beautiful passage four measures long in which the melody disappears as in a soft haze or darkness that envelopes the scene and shrouds it. These final four measures are thoroughly Schumannesque, and reveal the poetic glamour of his style. It should also be noted that the adaptation of the idea to the pianoforte is admirable. The broken chords, each sustained by the pedal, give to the piano a much greater sonority and beauty of tone than was produced by the old method of melody and conventional accompaniment.

The second piece to be studied here is Schumann's *Novellette in F, Opus 21. This is the best known of the various Novellettes of Schumann, and is thoroughly characteristic of him. The title is a somewhat vague one; Niecks says of it:

> He had found at last a proper form for his confidential communications,—for the Kreisleriana and Novelletten are a kind of confession. These pieces read like a romance, to the interest and beauty of which they add the truthfulness of reality. . . . . They are characterized by Schumann as "large connected romantic stories." Here we have no painful forcing, no oozing out of thoughts, but a full stream, a rich outwelling, such as is rare even with this master.

The first theme of this Novellette is characterized by some harsh dissonances, as at (5), (second chord), and bears throughout the marks of an independent, assertive mind that has no fear of saying what it thinks. The whole first theme is notable for its brusqueness, and the absence of that deferential attitude which characterized the music of the eighteenth century. Here, in short, not beauty, but individual expression is the end in view. The Trio, beginning at (21), voices a more poetic mood, and the management of both the theme and the accompaniment is excellent, the middle part being unobtrusive. At (35) and (45) characteristic changes of key take place; these effects of color were foreshadowed by Beethoven, and Schubert is famous for them. Passages like these are a part of the general romantic tendencies of art at this time; in painting we see the tendency towards expression through color, and in literature toward a less definite, or categorical drawing of character. The moralizing, and the definite character drawing in Thackeray, for example, is notably in contrast to the methods employed by Meredith—as a perusal of the pages of "Henry Esmond," and "Diana of the Crossways" will show.

The Trio theme is succeeded by a return of the first theme, after which a section in free counterpoint follows (61). This consists of five notes only, descending in regular sequence in imitation, and the whole passage is interesting in that it illustrates how little music may depend on pure melody for its effect. This brief sequence of five notes mounting higher and higher has it own message, and is as significant as the more lyric melody of the Trio; it is like an impassioned episode in the romantic story the composer is telling.

In the Finale part of this interesting piece Schumann employs still harsher dissonances. At (118), (120), (126), and (130) the harmonies become almost strident, and in the abrupt, forceful final chords we feel the same determination to speak frankly that characterizes all Schumann's music.

The last pieces of Schumann to be studied here are comprised in Opus 12, †"Fantasiestücke (Fantasy-Pieces) for the Pianoforte." The titles are as follows: "In the Evening," "Soaring," "Why," "Whims," "In the Night," "Fable," "Dream-Fancies," "End of the Song." These titles must not be taken too literally. Schumann did not imagine a defin-

*This Novellette may be had for 35 cents. It is also obtainable in the form of a pianola roll.

*This set of pieces may be had for 35 cents. They are also obtainable in the form of pianola rolls.

ROBERT AND CLARA SCHUMANN

ite object in his mind and then try to invent a piece to describe it. The piece being composed he added the title as a slight indication of its meaning. The addition of the title "seems to evince a feeling that in the composition of the piece alone, he had not said everything that struggled within him for expression." . . . In these pianoforte pieces with poetic titles Schumann found a means of expression which hovered as it were between pure instrumental music on the one hand and vocal music on the other, and thus received a certain indefinite and mysterious character of its own, which may most justly be called romantic.*

The first of these Fantasy-Pieces, "In the Evening," seems to represent the mysterious beauty of twilight-time; a soft glow pervades it, and by its rhythm and harmonies it creates an atmosphere as of the evening. The peculiarities of rhythm will be obvious to the student; the meter (marked two-eight) is in effect a threefold one because of the accentuation of the notes of the melody progressing regularly in threes.

"Aufschwung," the second piece in Opus 12, has a vigorous, uplifting tone to it, and contains some cross-rhythms as did the first piece in the set. This may be observed at (6) where the melody is in three-four rhythm against an accompaniment in six-eight. Perhaps the best descriptive term we can employ in writing of a piece like this is "Tone picture." There is an intimate quality in all this music; such a passage as that at (55-62)

*Grove's Dictionary, "Schumann."

has a tenderness and beauty of its own quite different from that to be found in music before Schumann's day.

"Warum" is one of the best known pieces of Schumann. Here each phrase is like a question, and the whole a delicate play of fancy—a mood-picture. Students will observe the beauty of the voice part; the over-lapping, as at (5-8), the more insistent dialogue at (17-24), the beautiful harmonic effects produced by the close juxtaposition of two parts as at (38-39).

MONUMENT TO SCHUMANN IN THE CEMETERY AT BONN

This piece is a model of its kind. Within its short compass Schumann has crowded a world of feeling; there is nothing didactic, nothing oratorical, no unmeaning and unnecessary description, no prosing in it; all is poetic and tender. As with Heine's lyrics there is no narrative save of a mood, an impression; it is surcharged with sentiment without being sentimental, and its story is so genuine and so touching that it reaches all who are capable of entering the charmed land of imagination.

The fourth of these pieces, "Grillen," is delightfully fanciful, and humorous. The changed accents, as at (6-7) where the second beat of the measure receives the stress, and the brusque frolicking of the whole first strain reveal the reason for the title "Whims." The use Schumann makes of the two notes (in octaves) at the beginning of the second strain (in four flats) is worth noting; beginning at (18) and again at (26) and (34) these two notes assume different significance and serve to present more subtle versions of the second strain in which they first appeared. Relief to all this by-play is found in the strain at (61) and (73).

Space does not permit us to dwell on the characteristics of each of the series of pieces in Opus 12. The student should study them diligently and try to appreciate their beauty and significance. It will be found in every case that, however definite the title, Schumann never permits it to be an excuse for writing music that is not interesting in itself. Without titles these pieces would still be the same charming tone-poems.

The readers of these articles have been often urged by the author to study other works of the composers treated, and, in addition, to read *around* the subject. There is too much specializing in the study of music; its relationship with other art, with literature, with life, is too little understood, and it is the author's hope that he has been able to inspire in the minds of at least some of his readers the ambition to know something of this great art, *as an art*, not as an amusement. In this connection he urges all students to procure some of Schumann's Songs—such as "Spring-Night," "I'll Not Complain," "The Two Grenadiers,"—and to study them with the aid of the books mentioned in the bibliography, and in relation to the songs of Schubert mentioned in the last article.

The purpose of a magazine article should be to stimulate the desire on the part of the reader to go to the original source. Many people, however, depend

for their knowledge on the second-hand presentment of it, and dissipate their mental energies over desultory reading. If the student, here, wishes truly to know Schumann let him take this article as a finger-post pointing to the works themselves, and to the admirable books mentioned in our list.*

*The various pieces of Schumann used to illustrate this article may be had in the form of rolls for the pianola.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What advance in pianoforte style do you find in Schumann? 2. What difference in the musical themes, themselves? 3. What justification of the title do you find in Schumann's "Traumeswirren"? 4. What characteristics of the Romantic style do you find in both Heine and Schumann?

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End of May Required Reading for the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, Pages 111-147.

Is It Hard to Believe?

Is it hard to believe, is it hard to believe
  That we live again, dearest, you and I?
To me it is hardest of all to conceive
  That having once lived we can ever die!—
For a moment, even, to cease to breathe,
  Or to love, or to smile, or to shed glad tears,
Or ever in dreams to cease to wreathe
  Some happiness out of the coming years.

Why, here is the earth, the sweet old earth,
  With her violets, her daisies, her thrushes again!—
With a plaintiveness throbbing amid the mirth,
  For the joy of it all is akin to pain.
Has the very dust of the earth the power
  To be young each May, and to bloom and sing,
And are we less immortal than bird and flower
  To be granted only one youth, one Spring?

From a risen earth to a risen heaven
  Is no bold dream, or the fancy's leap,
And love is a sunshine to wake us even
  From something deeper than winter's sleep.
And so is it hard to believe, to believe
  That we live again, dearest, you and I?
To me it is hardest of all to conceive
  That having once lived we can ever die!

—*Mary A. Mason.*

Recent Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare

Progress in Geography

By Gilbert H. Grosvenor, M. A.

Editor of the National Geographic Magazine. Author of "Inoculating the Ground," etc.

ONE of the most interesting incidents of the Eighth International Geographic Congress, recently held at Washington, was the greeting of the Congress sent simultaneously by the U. S. Naval Observatory to fifty different stations scattered around the globe. The electric wave going westward across the United States and the Pacific met the wave sent eastward across the Atlantic and Europe at Adelaide, Australia, five seconds after leaving Washington. That is, before you could cross the room, the electric beat had throbbed the 25,000 miles around our giant globe. Only a few moments passed after the greeting had been sent before replies began to come in from Cape Town, Buenos Ayres, Sitka, Yokohama, and St. Petersburg.

An amusing and in a certain sense the most significant response came from the Naval Governor of Guam, an island unheard of seven years ago but now known to every American: "The American colony and native inhabitants of Guam send thanks for the cheering message of the Eighth International Geographic Congress at Washington and invite them to hold their next session in this beautiful and happy island."

Not many years ago if any man had proposed to send a similar message around the world, people would either have fled from him in fright as a madman, or they would have jeered at him as a harmless lunatic or crank. But the world is already so accustomed to communicating across 15,000 miles of space that the feat passed almost unnoticed. The ingenuity of modern man has converted the geographic obstacles of the past into the paths of the present. Today the oceans, so easy are they of traverse, bind the continents together. Our trains tunnel under the Alps as if they were a mole hill or climb over the Rockies with the ease of the eagle.

Thus the world-circling greeting illustrates in striking manner the almost perfect geographic unity of today. The day of the explorer has passed: there can never be another Cook or another Stanley or another Livingstone for the reason that the world contains today no continents to be split open or oceans to be traversed.* Within a few months a railroad locomotive will whistle through the sacred streets of Mecca; the gates of Lhasa, the mysterious and forbidden goal of count-

*In 1800, the year that Jefferson was first elected President of the United States and Napoleon won the history-making battle of Marengo, about one-fifth of the earth's land surface was known. The physical features of the remaining four-fifths were partly supplied by imaginative map makers or left a blank on the charts given to the public. In 1904 approximately ten-elevenths of the earth's land surface may be described as known and only one-eleventh as unexplored. In fact much less than one-eleventh remains unknown, for the unknown area is so distributed in both hemispheres that nowhere except at the North and South poles are there remaining large unexplored tracts.

This is the fourth of a series of artices on "Recent Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare." The following articles have already appeared: "Bacteriology: Food, Drink, and Sewage" (September), "Bacteriology: Contagious Diseases" (October), by Professor H. W. Conn; "Contemporary Psychology" (January), by Professor J. R. Angell.

THE HOME OF THE NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC SOCIETY

Association of 4,000 members with headquarters at Washington, D. C., organized for the increase and diffusion of geographic knowledge.

less explorers, have been thrown back and the world has rudely entered therein. There is not remaining a single virgin field for the explorer except the poles. No longer must geographers

> "In 'Afric' maps
> With strange pictures fill their gaps,
> And o'er uninhabitable downs
> Place elephants for want of towns."

Exploration is completed, but the science of geography has only just begun.

THE NEW INTEREST IN GEOGRAPHY

The ancients had a great respect for geography; the word itself implied their respect, "description of the earth." But during the past century it fell into much disfavor because it was distorted from its former meaning and came to stand for merely a "collection of facts," unrelated and isolated from each other. Geography even in the school days of most of the grown up people of today was the synonym of everything dry and senseless. "Bound Afghanistan, Beluchistan, Siam." "Name the tributaries of the Amazon and the Danube." "How many cities in Europe have 25,000 inhabitants?" These and similar questions were fired at our innocent heads, and if we could answer them, we did so like parrots, and really knew no more than the luckless pupil who could not remember the stereotyped answer. The memorizing of useless names and facts was all that geography formerly meant. Consequently we grown-ups of today obtained in our school days little geographic knowledge. We did not care very much at first and in fact were not aware that we had lost anything, until, of recent years, events requiring information have crowded so thick and fast upon one another that the whole world has joined the geography class. First there was the Spanish-American War. When to our reluctance the Philippine Islands were thrust upon us, which before the

war had seemed nearly as remote as the moon, barely ten men in the United States knew anything about them. We had to set to work and learn the geography of the islands. Today Negritos, Igorrotes, Visayans, Luzon, Samar, have become almost as familiar as Porto Rico, Oklahoma, and Arizona. Then came the war in South Africa. Boers, Basutos, diamond mines, Kimberley, and Ladysmith were so constantly mentioned that we got out our maps and cyclopedias and proceeded to study their geography. Then followed the Boxer outrages and now the Russo-Japanese War which have set us to thinking and studying the geography of the East and the wonderful strength and courage of the yellow race. Five years ago the words Chinese and Japanese were used indiscriminately in the United States. Today a boy on the street who called a Jap a Chinaman would be hooted by his fellows. Then there is the tragedy of Servia and the building of the Panama Canal. Thus in swift succession our interests have been torn from one point of the globe to another point thousands of miles away. War has made us thirsty for geographic information, but war has not been the only cause of our desire for knowledge of what the world contains.

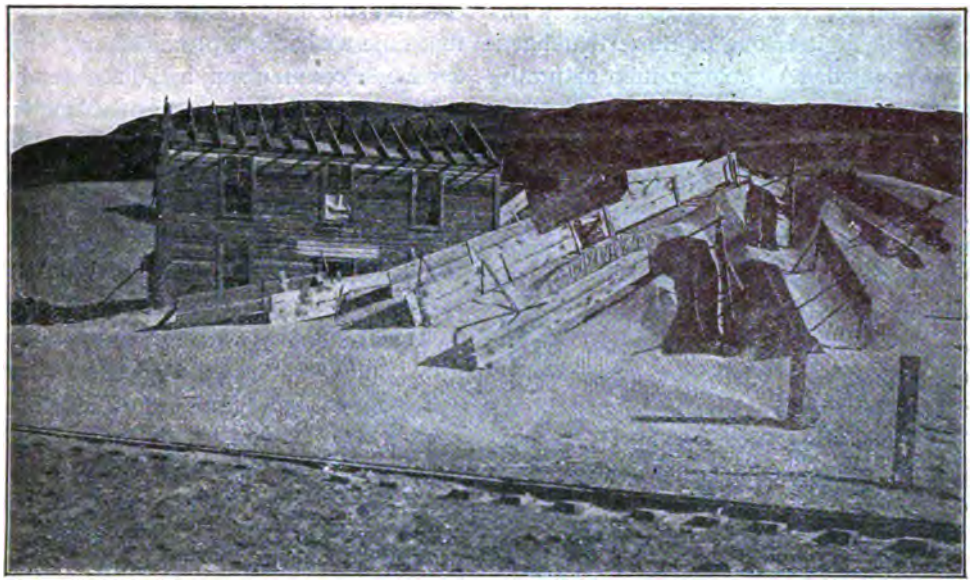
The fearful upheavals in Martinique, St. Vincent, and Guatemala, attended by a general natural unrest throughout the globe, have aroused widespread desire to understand what is known—little though that knowledge is—of the mysterious forces writhing under the earth's crust. The coal strike in the United States aroused an interest of a different character—an inquiry as to what coal is and how it happens to be stored in certain localities and not in others. The prolonged and successful agitation for irrigation in the West and for forest reservations has had a share in arousing the public to an interest in other questions relating to physical geography, as, for instance, weathering and soils, forests and rainfall. Then, too, the necessity of increasing the markets abroad for the surplus products of our own farms and mills has stirred us to study the commerce of nations and has given life to the whole subject of commercial geography.

AMONG THE RUINS OF ST. PIERRE

The terrible cataclysm of St. Pierre has aroused a widespread desire to learn about the terrible forces in the earth.

THE WEATHER BUREAU

Perhaps the most striking advance in geography during the past generation is our knowledge of the atmosphere which mantles the earth. Meteorology is a new branch of geography and is a distinctly American product. Storms, on land at least, have been robbed of their horrors by the efficiency of our Weather Bureau, which has solved in many respects the secrets of the weather. The government spends every year a million and a half of dollars for the Weather Bureau, but the amount is many times repaid. The Bureau has taught us to recognize a



THE LAST HOUSE IN RIGGS, OREGON

A village overwhelmed by the march of the sand dunes.

cold wave, and by forecasts of its course, issued in sufficient time, enables us to protect our orchards and vegetable gardens against the blighting blast. The observers of the Weather Bureau are able to discern the symptoms of a growing storm. They give warning of its development and path across the Great Lakes or up the Atlantic Coast. The craft in our lake and coast ports take heed, and by keeping snug in harbor when the tempest rages outside save their owners millions of dollars annually. So accurate are its measurements of rainfall and its knowledge of the drainage area and capacity of our rivers that the Weather Bureau can foretell a flood a week and sometimes a month ahead of its coming, thus enabling such of us as live on the river banks to prepare our defenses and withdraw our women and children to places of safety.

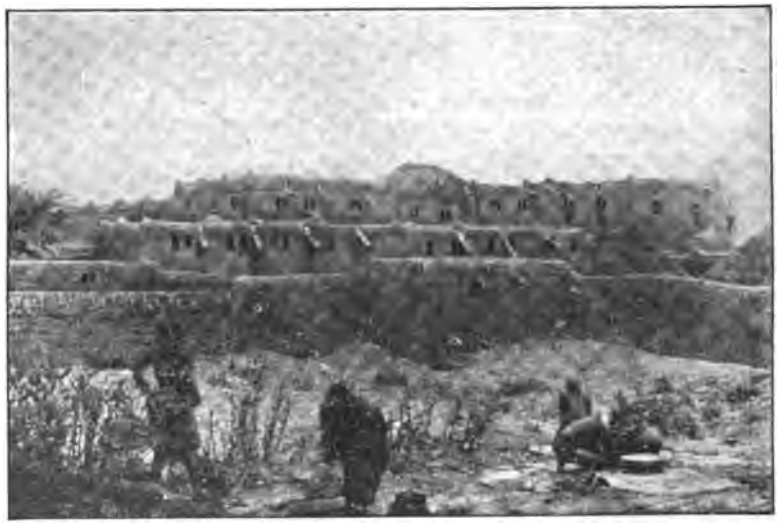
UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY

I have alluded to the practical completion of the exploration of the world. The pioneer explorer of thirty years ago has been followed by the scientific map maker who with great exactness is charting the surface of the earth. We have in our country in the United States Geological Survey the greatest map making organization in the world. The Survey employs hundreds of skilled and observant surveyors whom it sends out to every state and territory to make detailed pictures of the landscape. These maps are most necessary in the development of our resources; they tell the lines of least resistance for new railways and where to locate dams and reservoirs for great irrigation works; they map the veins of coal and gold and iron in our mountains, and thus protect the mines from encroaching on each other. They are constantly announcing newly discovered mineral wealth which all may come and share. It was only the other day that a member of the Geological Survey found in Alaska great deposits of tin; this is the first tin discovered in America. It was another Geological Survey man who located the Leadville vein which has yielded already $300,000,000 of gold. Already one-third of the United States has been mapped with this minute and scientific precision. The results appear on 1,400 atlas sheets and 110 geologic folios.

it has been constantly increasing in size, that it has grown by "slow accretion, or infall, of small, discrete particles (planetesimals, which formed the earth-moon ring or zone. The ocean and the atmosphere have slowly accumulated from the gases originally held in the planetesimals, being forced to the earth's surface by interior consolidation due to gravity. The heat of the earth's interior is, under this theory, due to gravitational compression similar to the production of the sun's heat."

IMAGINARY GEOGRAPHY

Though no dreams of finding a new continent can fire people of our day, so long as the human brain remains imaginative, men will set out on queer quests. Some years ago a man in one of the Pacific Coast cities of the United States, after reading one of the wild romances of Stevenson, became convinced of the fact that in the South Pacific, near Fiji, there was an island inhabited only by women. It occurred to him what an easy and profitable scheme it would be to organize an expedition of men to go to that Adamless island, carrying the latest ploughs and axes and tools that belong to men, and to establish man's rule upon it. He was a persuasive genius, and in the course of a few months, organized a company of one hundred men, who chartered a sailing vessel, stocked it with farming tools and dresses, and then set sail across the Pacific. They arrived in Fiji in due course of time and told the object of their quest to the British governor. The governor laughed and said that the Adamless island was a fake. But they would not believe him, nothing could persuade them that they were on a wild goose chase. They persisted that the island was a reality and that they were come to take possession of it in the name of civilization and of the United States. Finally the governor, seeing they were in earnest, declared that even if one of the Fiji islands was what they sought, they could not take possession of it, because all the islands belonged to Great Britain, and if they attempted to plant the American flag on one of these British islands he would send his gunboat after them. The expedition then dispersed, about twenty remaining at Fiji and the others wandering off to other fields of conquest. But all still remained convinced of the existence of that island where only women lived.



THE EMIR OF KANO'S PALACE

Kano, like Timbuktu, for centuries was shrouded with mystery. It is the principal city of Northern Nigeria, a territory of 500,000 square miles and 20,000,000 people over whom British dominion has been recently extended.

THE GEOGRAPHY OF DISEASE

Progress in other sciences has removed many of the prejudices of geography. Not many years ago geography was supposed to be responsible, and mainly responsible, for certain diseases. Yellow fever was inseparable from Cuba, cholera from Asia Minor, the plague from Eastern Asia, malaria from Panama. Upon a map of these regions, these fatal scourges were as certain to appear as the hills and mountains. But we have learned to recognize the fact that geographic conditions, while sometimes conducive to disease are not inseparable, though in some quarters we still labor under the idea that typhoid cannot be driven out of our American cities; that it is fixed by geography.

COMMERCIAL AND POLITICAL IMPORTANCE OF GEOGRAPHIC KNOWLEDGE

A knowledge of geography is as essential as reading and writing. The best statesman is he who keeps the map of the whole world before him; he studies the various peoples and countries; he knows the geography of peoples and is thus equipped to guide his own nation. We are apt to call Seward a prophet because of his famous remark, "The Pacific Ocean, its shores, its islands, and the vast regions beyond, will become the chief theater of events in the world's great hereafter." But Seward was a prophet because he was a geographer; he kept the map of the world before him; he saw the human currents on the map, and he thus could tell whither the nations were being whirled.

We all remember the lessons of geography given in the United States Senate by Senator Hanna when the Nicaragua Canal bill seemed likely to go through the Senate from the momentum it had received from a practically unanimous vote in the House of Representatives. Senator Hanna produced a map of the region, hung it up on the wall of the Senate chamber and with pointer and red ink hammered into the minds of his audience the existence of dangerous and active volcanoes on the route, which might in the twinkling of an eye blot out

ESKIMO PACKER

One of Captain Peary's packers ready for the march over the ice cap.

people. To summarize; the most recent practical achievements of geographic science are:

1. The completion of the exploration of the world. The black patches on the map in Brazil, Alaska, and Labrador are few and comparatively small. There are no longer on the face of the earth any dark regions hiding millions of people, such as Stanley opened up on the Kongo a generation ago.

2. The development of the science of meteorology, which has revealed many of the laws of storms and hurricanes and enabled us to prepare for their devastation.

3. A better understanding of the crust of the earth, of the formation of gold, iron, and of the other treasures contained in it, which is enabling us to obtain easily vast quantities of these riches; also a better understanding of the history of mountains and rivers so that we can appreciate the beauties of the landscape.

4. A beginning in the scientific study of the oceans and an appreciation of their incomparable resources when stimulated by the ingenuity of man.

5. A better knowledge of the distribution of animals and plants, so that we are able to improve such as we have and import others and reproduce them.

6. Geography has captured the people. This last achievement is undoubtedly the most important. The people are awakened and hungry for information about the earth and the dependence of man upon the earth, so that the science of geography will in the future advance much more rapidly than it has heretofore.

How the American Boy Is Educated

The American Boy and His College

By Walter L. Hervey

Formerly President of Teacher's College; Member of the Board of Examiners, New York City Schools.

THE college is an institution peculiar to America. Its counterpart does not exist on the continent of Europe. And though its prototype was the English institution from which it derives its name, it has departed from its original as has Uncle Sam from John Bull. Between elementary schools the world over there is some likeness; an American high school has points in common with the gymnasium and the lycée; the best universities, whatever their location, have identical aims, and similar methods. But the American college, as an institution essentially different from both high school and university, is distinctly and uniquely an American product. It is the American answer to the question, How should the youth, who is to have the most liberal education that society can give him, spend the three or four years following his seventeenth or eighteenth birthday?

It is natural that the educational arrangements for this period should vary widely. For the rudiments of knowledge are pretty much the same the world over; the discipline of study and of obedience

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This is the eighth of a series of nine articles on "How the American Boy is Educated. The following have already appeared: Education and the American Boy, September; Home [illegible]tion, October; Bodily Basis: Physican and Teacher, November; Schooling in Country [illegible]v, December; Changes in the Common School Curriculum, January; Aspects of the [illegible]y School, February; The High School Period, March.

to authority must be undergone by every lad in any land; the search for truth, which it is the distinctive province of the university to guide and foster is one search, whether it be pursued in Berlin, or in Bologna, or in Baltimore. But what the process shall be of building a free man out of the raw materials furnished by the schools can only be determined in the light of the national ideals of what a free man is, and of the national traditions and conscious judgment as to how best to build him. The continental method of treating a lad like a school boy, and developing in him an attitude toward authority which borders on severity, and then of giving him the sudden and complete freedom of the university, would be ill adapted both to the nature, the environment, and the destination of the American boy. For him, at least, it is better that there should be between the restraint of school and the freedom of the university a period in which is combined, in due measure, something of both. For him, also, it is better that restraint and freedom, prescription and election, learning and reciting, on the one hand, and lecture hearing and independent study on the other, be duly combined.

This period is filled by the American college. There is little fear that the college will ever be radically changed, either into a "glorified high school" or into a university. And there is no reason to think that it will ever be out of fashion for the flower of American youth, of both sexes, to go to college; or that individuals or commonwealths will ever cease endowing the colleges with increasing liberality.

There are 472 colleges in the United States, eleven of them founded before the Revolution, half of them founded since the Civil War. In these colleges there were, in 1897, 84,955, and in 1902, 88,879 students pursuing college courses, about five-eighths of whom were male students. This means roughly, that out of every 900 of the population, one is a college student; and that in every 1,400 of the population there is one male college student (as against one out of every five of the population, in elementary schools; one out of every 125, in high schools; and one out of every 1,500 or so, in professional schools).

The figures regarding quality are more striking. The ratio of American men who have received a college education has been in the past but 1 per cent, though it is now over 3 per cent. But it has been shown that the number of college-bred men in the Senate and House of Representatives in two typical congresses was 32 times as great as might have been expected, if the fact of their college training were neglected, and that in fifty-seven years 68 per cent of the members of the Supreme Court and 85 per cent of the Chief Justices of the United States have been college-bred men. One out of 40 college graduates as against 1 out of 10,000 non-college graduates is mentioned in "Appleton's Encyclopedia of Biography." One in every 106 of college graduates is mentioned in "Who's Who," as against 1 in every 600 of non-college graduates. College-bred professional men have five times the chance of other men to attain eminence.

The college man belongs to a small class, relatively, and to a privileged class, absolutely. Yet I have known fathers (college-bred themselves) to deliberately lay out for their boys a life plan with college left out; and the boys to acquiesce. It has oftener happened, however, as far as my observation goes, that "going to college" has been the vision before the mother's eye as she rocked the boy's cradle; and the thought in the father's mind as the *sine qua non*, while he slaved and saved that his boy might have the best; and that the boy himself, never doubting that he would go to college when the time came, picked out his college in preparatory school, rooted for it, wore its colors at games, and finally, ***went***, whether the pater's money lasted out the four years, or whether, in whole or in

part, he had to earn his own way. And there are few college men, I think, who would not think long and deeply before consenting that their sons should forego the unique and unreplaceable experience of a college course.

The choice of a college—when the college is rarely chosen—is a matter of grave, and I think, also, of increasing concern. Sometimes, of course, considerations of convenience, locality, denomination, expense, and especially of friendship or family tradition, determine the matter. But often the choice must be made. The eleven year old boy comes to his mother with the earnest question, "What is my college? All the boys have some college to yell for." The fourteen year old lad is found poring over a pile of college catalogues. He intends to work out the problem for himself. Two boys I know, who, in their last high school year, spent a week touring among New England colleges. They were guests of former high school mates, or of friends to whom they were given letters. They were treated royally and had a jolly time; but finally decided to go to a college they had not visited, "because you never hear anything bad about that college."

The question of co-education is declared to be no longer a question—by those who have in practice decided it to their own satisfaction in diametrically opposite ways. The violent objections of theorists are met with the calm rejoinder: We have tried our way and are satisfied with it. It is doubtless too soon to prophesy what the final settlement will be in every case. But it seems clear enough that there will always be the man's college, the woman's college, and the mixed college. In a matter like this, argument may well give way to anecdote. This is a true one.

Two young people, male and female, are seated side by side in the physiology class.

The Professor (by way of introducing his lecture). "What makes the heart beat?"

The Young Man (to the young woman). "It makes *my* heart beat to sit near you."

The Young Woman (to the young man). "If you talk that way to me, you will make mine stop beating."

Shall the chosen college be situated in the city or in the country? In a small town, with beautiful natural scenery and a bracing climate, college life will undoubtedly flourish more vigorously and normally than in a city; studies will perhaps be pursued with less danger of interruption. Where students live at home, traveling back and forth on street cars, a college atmosphere is created under difficulties. And yet the city college, if it be in the city and yet not of it, has compensations. The city gives a humanizing stimulus that nothing else can give. The professors feel it; the students feel it, both directly and through their teachers. The city attracts great administrators, and great teachers—but it does not always allow the latter to do their best work.

Whether the boy shall go away from home to college is a much more vital question. Emerson long ago pointed out the value to the boy in his teens merely of having a room alone. To be thrown on his own resources, with his own allowance to keep within; his own bank account that he must not overdraw; an income to apportion wisely among the various expense items—remembering that what is spent on society dues cannot go to clothes, and vice versa; time to husband and to spend; friends to choose; a reputation to make; a niche in college life to fill—in short, to be given the chance, under favorable conditions, to make a trial trip in the voyage of life, himself his own captain, before the real business begins, is an indispensable part of a boy's education. The regulated and cumulative freedom of family and school life have been leading up to this culmination. Even if I lived in a college town, I should send my boys away

to college, deprive them of the comforts of home, and myself of the satisfaction of daily companionship with them, and even scrimp to pay board bills, rather than have them miss the chance of seeing and enjoying college life on the true American plan.

Whether to choose a large or a small college depends largely on the boy. Some boys will, indeed, be leaders wherever they are. Others will surely gravitate to the indistinguishable foot of the group in which they are, no matter what its size. But size usually counts. If a college does not include first rate minds, either in its faculty, or its student body; if its predominant note is *either* athletics, *or* gerund grinding, *or* gentlemanly leisure, *or* practicality, *or* culture, but not a combination of *all* these; if in short it is anything but a many sided microcosm, then it is too narrow, or too small—or both. A college must be big enough and strong enough to give scope for hero-worship, to foster noble emulation, and to provide the stimulus of standards. If, on the other hand, as President William De Witt Hyde has well said, "a man can be a mere unit in a mass toward which he feels little or no responsibility; if his specific contribution is not needed and his individual opinion does not count; if the games are played, and the papers are edited, and the societies are managed, and things generally are conducted by experts whom he merely knows by sight and reputation; then that college is too large for him; he will probably come out of it as small as he went in."

A knowledge of the distinction between the "school college," the "university college," and the "college," * is essential to any intelligent choice between colleges, or, in fact, to any understanding of the American college.

The "college," as defined by President Hyde, "is an institution where young men and young women study great subjects, under broad teachers, in a liberty which is not license, and a leisure which is not idleness; with unselfish participation in a common life and intense devotion to minor groups within the larger body, and special interests inside the general aim; conscious that they are critically watched by friendly eyes; too kind ever to take unfair advantage of their weakness and errors, yet too keen ever to be deceived.

"The function of the college, then, is not mental training on the one hand nor specialized knowledge on the other. . . It is liberal education; the opening of the mind to the great departments of human interest; the opening of the heart to the great spiritual motives of unselfishness and social service; the opening of the will to opportunity for wise and righteous self-control."

The school-college, on the other hand, "admits its students poorly prepared, and gives them in the school-college the work they ought to have done in the school. Its professors are schoolmasters, teaching several subjects, mainly by the school method of recitation from the book or repetition of dictated lectures. Laboratory work is confined chiefly to prearranged illustrative material. The conduct of students is minutely supervised by the faculty. Little or nothing inside or outside of the recitation rooms is left to the initiative of the student. A considerable proportion of the so-called colleges of the United States are of this school-college type. They are inexpensive; and curiously enough the less endowment they have, the less it costs to attend them. Their graduates, unless by virtue of native wit, hardly have the breadth and initiative necessary for leadership in commercial, professional, and public life."

A "university college" is one which, whether connected with a university or not, applies to "immature students methods of instruction and discipline which are adapted only to the mature. Its

*See paper read by President Hyde before the International Congress of Arts and Science, Department 23, Section C (The College), at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis, Mo., September 19-24, 1904.

comparison was made between an ode of Horace and a poem of Longfellow, and, so far as they recollect, this was the only recitation in the course where an effort was made to relate the task in hand with their other possible experience.

In another course, every subject was made humanly interesting. Broad relations were established between things of apparently the utmost disparity. Facts suddenly stood revealed in the light of everybody's individual psychic experience. The wide range of subjects touched upon—problems of government, paternalism, the tenement house, the life of the college—was rich in suggestions for future study. Either the topics which were discussed were of perennial interest or the method of attack was such that through these classroom discussions what had before been dry bones was made perennially interesting.

Here is a college man's ideal of the true college teacher.

If his teacher is teaching just the Greek language, or just English, then the student will probably plod through the pages of Œdipus and Lear, wondering who the first fool was to start the tradition that these are words of genius; but if his teacher is teaching life and poetry, then he may suddenly awaken, may see why great tragedy is perhaps the fullest artistic expression of his nature that man has attained, and the Œdipus and Lear may blaze with a new light.

As I think of my own college teachers now, I see the difference. It was the man who linked his subject with life who gave me something that I can feel within me now. . . . The man who cannot send a thrill down the backbone of his students now and then is not the true *college* teacher. We all know who the teacher is who can awaken that thrill. . . . It is the teacher of physics, who, after his lecture on heat and light and electricity, pauses to do a little generalizing, to view the whole world under that aspect, to hint of the undreamed of mysteries that a million other forms of vibration may some day reveal. The teacher of mere physics would never think of quoting Shakespeare on such an occasion. But a teacher of life—why, I was almost being so intemperate as to say he could hardly forget him:

There's not the smallest orb which thou beholdest,
But in his motion like an angel sings,
Still quiring to the young-ey'd cherubims:
Such harmony is in immortal souls;
But, whilst this muddy vesture of decay
Doth grossly close it in, we cannot hear it.

In very truth, it does not so much matter what you study, as *with whom*.

The interesting and unsettled question of the length of the college course can only be glanced at here. Shall we, to quote the brilliant language of President Thomas with respect to the college, "hew off one year of his age, the very flower of his maturity, in order to enrich the professional schools? Shall we cut him asunder at the belt line, leaving him a two years' torso, casting the last two years, the heart and brains of him, in part to the professional school, but in greater part to outer darkness and destruction." Or is there truth in the dictum of one who has just completed a four years' college course: "Divide its length by two and you divide its usefulness by eight?" However this may be, it seems clear that many American young fellows will be satisfied with an arrangement that enables them to graduate from college at twenty-two, after a four years' course of liberal studies and of college life; and that there will be plenty of four year colleges for such as desire to attend them.

More vital than the question of length is that of the choice of studies. An absolutely rigid scheme of required studies is intolerable. But absolute freedom of choice is impracticable and unwise. "He remembers a mass of things, but nothing distinctly" is a good characterization of the college student who has spent eight semesters under the burden of anywhere from four to ten different subjects per year. "The result of seeking breadth of culture through studying many subjects, is oftener confusion than culture." The alternative is some form of the "group system," whereby a student is kept from excessive scattering, and is forced to build a vertebrate course, on general lines worked out for (or with) him, with more or less definiteness, by the college authorities. The essence of such a course is

that it has a vertebral column and ribs branching therefrom. Some form of special knowledge or special training is its central axis. Side lines are chosen with a freedom that increases with the student's progress in college. How the system may work is thus gracefully indicated by a college woman:

The main current of my choice (Greek and Latin) was fed by tributary streams of some English, a little history, and philosophy, and science. . . . Among my contemporaries I saw the process reversed. Here was a main current of mathematical learning helped on by a little stream of Greek. Or, it may be, political economy politely returned the indifference of the classics, or the modern languages emerged bravely from the torture of the fear of required science. We were, with our different enthusiasms, rather sympathetic toward each other, the varied composition of our minds making us interesting among ourselves. If I sent my bravest ship out on one stream which my neighbor deemed worthy only of one of her skiffs, then on another stream my little skiff looked small beside her full-sailed vessel. And, being well piloted, we did not mistake any one of the streams for their common ocean.

College life is, after all, the one element in a college course that a boy must actually *go to college* in order to secure. The curriculum established by college traditions and faithfully administered by the college boys is no less fundamentally educative than that established and administered by the faculty and the trustees. The latter is a curriculum of the classroom, the laboratory, the lecture hall, of books, experiments, and quizzes. The former is a curriculum of the campus, the dormitory, the bleachers and the athletic field, the eating club, the chapter house, the literary hall, the musical club, the religious society. And how well the boys do their self-allotted tasks! The callow "freshie" learns more about human nature in general, and his own bumptious self in particular, between the October and June of his first college year, than all the parental advice and training of the previous ten years have sufficed to give him. A good, wholesome hazing—in any of the myriad forms in which it is administered—is a good thing for any man's son to get as a freshman and to repay as sophomore. It is a good thing to go to a college old enough to have established student traditions, and spirited enough to enforce them. It is not well that a freshman comport himself as he will, or enjoy the freedom of the campus until he have duly earned it.

That thing known as "college atmosphere," though elusive, is very real. Whether justly or not—but surely with a certain measure of justice— one college prides itself on its refinement (which, viewed from without, is sometimes mistaken for snobbishness); another is, or wishes to be, noted for pluck and grit; another for democracy and good fellowship; another for student honor; and so on. Whatever the quality, or the combination of qualities, college atmosphere counts.

There is one element in American college life which is in a measure common to all college communities, the element of *reality*. However unreal and remote from life his studies may be, the boy who plays his part in college life is "up against" the real thing and must himself be the real thing. It has been truly said of one great college, and it might perhaps be as truly said of many another:

There is a fair field and no favor. Wealth does not make for a man nor the lack of it against him. The students live their lives upon one social level. There is a deep-seated intolerance of all snobbishness and pretension. The dictum of the 'varsity field, "No grand-stand playing!" obtains in all quarters of the undergraduate life. It signifies no cant in religion; no pedantry in scholarship; no affectation in manners; no pretense in friendship.

It is no wonder that life passed in such an atmosphere possesses a unique quality, and that the American boy looks on the four years he spent at college as among the best years of his life.

Nature Study

The Cow

By Anna Botsford Comstock

Bureau of Nature Study, Cornell University.

MUCH is said of the beauty of the horse, but rarely is allusion made to the beauty of the horned cattle; this is unfair, for a fine cow or ox is truly beautiful. The soft, yellow skin beneath the sleek coat of hair, the well proportioned body, the mild face crowned with spreading polished horns and illuminated by the large, gentle eyes are all elements of beauty which artists have recognized, especially the great artists of the Dutch school. The ancients also admired the bovine eyes, and their most beautiful goddess they called "The Ox-eyed Juno."

The history of the development of the different breeds of cows is interwoven with the history of the civilization of different peoples. Our neat cattle have been developed from the wild cattle of Europe and Asia, each country developing and breeding them according to its own standards. Thus England has produced the Short-horns or Durhams, Herefords, Devons, Sussex; Scotland has given us the Aberdeen An-

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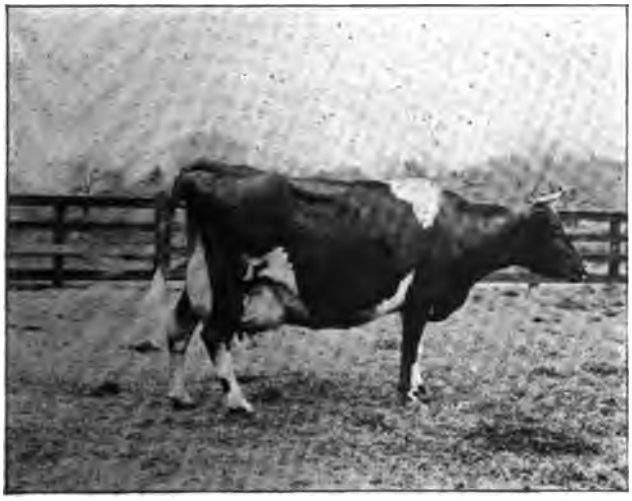
This is the sixth of a series of home Nature Study Lessons for the parents and teachers prepared by the Cornell Bureau of Nature Study. Lessons for children of the Chautauqua Junior Naturalist clubs will appear each month in *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, New York, The following articles have already appeared in THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Leaves, October; Seed Distribution, November; Evergreens I, December; Evergreens II, January; Tree Study in Winter, March.

gus, Galloways and Ayrshires; the islands of the English channel have developed the Guernseys, Alderneys, and Jerseys. Holland and Denmark produced the Holstein-Freisians and Dutch-belted; Switzerland the Brown Swiss; France the Norman breeds. In looking over the map of Europe we are impressed by the fact that all the best breeds of cattle found in the world today were developed in the British Isles, and Europe north of Italy and east of Russia.

Man from the first found horned cattle especially useful in two ways. They yielded flesh and milk for food, so he developed two strains, beef cattle and milch kine; the types of each differing so widely in appearance that they seem almost like different species.

The beef animal is in cross-section approximately square, being big and full across the loins and back, the shoulders and hips covered heavily with flesh; the legs stout; the neck thick and short, and



A DAIRY COW OF PERFECT FORM

the face short. The line of the back is straight and the stomach line parallel with it. Very different is the appearance of the milch cow; her body is oval instead of being somewhat square in cross section. The outline of her back is not straight but sags in front of the hips which are prominent and bony. The shoulders have little flesh on them and if looked at from above her body is wedge shaped widening from shoulders backward. The stomach line is not parallel with the back bone, but slants downward from shoulders to the udder. The following are the points that indicate a good milch cow: Head wide between the eyes showing large air passages and indicating strong lungs. Eyes large, clear, and placid, indicating good disposition. Mouth large with a muscular lower jaw, showing ability to chew efficiently and rapidly. The neck thin and fine, showing veins through the skin. Chest deep and wide, showing plenty of room for heart and lungs. The abdomen large but well supported and increasing in size toward the rear. The ribs should be well spread not meeting the spine, like the peak to a roof, and the spine must be prominent revealing to the touch the separate vertebrae. The hips should be much broader than the shoulders. The udder should be large, the four quarters of equal size, and should not be fat. The "milk veins" which carry the blood from the udder should be large and crooked, passing into the abdomen through large openings. The skin of the cow should be soft and pliable and covered with fine, oily hair, showing good digestion and assimilation. Above all the milch cow should be always hungry, for she is a milk making machine, and the more fuel (food) she can use the greater her production.

The physiological habits of the beef and milch cattle have been changed as much as their structure. The food given to the beef cow goes to make flesh; while that given to the milch cow goes to make milk, and she will not put on flesh when giving milk however abundant her food. Of course, there are all grades between the

A CUBAN MILKMAN

In Cuba the milkman drives his cow to the doors of his customers, taking a calf along to start the milk flow.

beef and milch types, for many farmers use their herds for both However, if a farmer is producing milk it pays him well to get the best possible machine to make it, and that is always a cow of the right type.

America had no wild cattle except the buffaloes and they have never been domesticated, so we have brought the different breeds from Europe. Cattle have played a most prominent part in our civilization and wealth. In pioneer days the patient oxen were our chief means of transportation and of clearing land. In many of our southern states today a common sight is two or three ox teams carrying heavy loads over rutty or sandy roads. I have always thought that a handsome pair of well broken oxen is a delightful team to ride after.

At present the beef breeds of cattle are grown more in the West where they have taken the place of the buffalo herds on the great plains, while the milk breeds are of greater importance in the East and Middle West.

In the middle and eastern United States the dairy cow is seen almost everywhere; and the dairy industry is being revolutionized at the present time. The teacher of every village school can aid greatly in this revolution by educating the children to higher standards and better methods of milk production. In the best dairies the following methods are followed:

The herd is improved constantly by keeping a thorough-bred sire at the head of it.

The stables are cleaned thoroughly every day, the sweeping of the floor being a part of the daily routine.

The milkers brush the cow's udder and wash their own hands before milking.

The milk is not strained in the barn where the odor of the stable will affect it, but is strained in the open air or in a warm room prepared purposely for it.

A pair of scales stands near the can for receiving the milk and as the milk from each cow is brought in it is weighed and the amount set down opposite the cow's name, on a milk sheet that is tacked up on the wall near-by. At the end of each week the figures on the milk sheet are added and the farmer knows just how much milk each cow is giving him and whether there are any in the herd which are not "paying their board." While to the old fashioned farmer, weighing each cow's milk seems "fussy," yet it takes little time and removes guess work from the dairying business. The up-to-date farmer likes to know where he stands. Besides the care of the stables and milk a well balanced ration of food is given to the cows, and plenty of fresh, good water provided for them, and they are kept in warm stables in the winter thus saving much fodder and grain. I know a dairy in New York State which under ignorant management produced only 3,000 pounds of milk per cow during the year. The next year the same dairy properly fed and housed yielded 6,000 pounds of milk per cow. Good care of the dairy cow often measures the difference between profitable and unprofitable farming.

CORRELATION OF THE STUDY OF CATTLE WITH REGULAR SCHOOL WORK

Geography—The children of your school are undoubtedly familiar with some distinct breeds of cattle, especially if they have attended the agricultural fairs. Study in every possible way the lives and habits of the people in the countries in which these breeds were developed. Geography readers will aid much in this respect, and our common cattle will be a direct means of interesting the children in Holland, Denmark, the Channel Islands and the different counties of England and Scotland. The relations of people to cattle in different countries will also prove interesting. Let the pupils read

A HANDSOME PAIR OF WELL BROKEN OXEN

how cows are used for plowing and burdens instead of for milk in China; and how the people of India have sacred cattle, and how some peasants of Germany live on the second floor of the house, the first floor being the stables of cows which are kept most clean; and how the milk peddlers of Cuba and other hot countries sometimes drive the cow from door to door, taking the calf along to start the flow of milk. The geography of our own country should be studied also to discover the reason why beef cattle are raised in the far West and dairy cattle in the Middle West and East. In fact the enterprising teacher will find that the cow path leads all over the world, and that her pupils will take pleasure in following it.

Industrial Geography—There is today very little waste in the carcasses of cattle, and aside from the dairy and beef and tallow industries, there are connected with the cattle business the manufactures of leather, plaster, glue, buttons, fertilizers and many others. The pupil should study each of these industries; also let him note that the countries which produce great amounts of hides and tallow are not dairy countries.

Language Work—The well marked breeds like the Jerseys, Ayrshires, and Holsteins afford excellent subjects for simple descriptions which should include size, color, and the striking characteristics. Advanced work may be done in connection with the geography work giving the results in interesting form. How and why the pioneers used oxen for transportation and logging would be an excellent theme. The story of pet calves and cows would be an interesting subject for the country child to write about. The Mowgli story "Tiger, Tiger" in the "First Jungle Book" might be read and the actions of the buffaloes described in an essay.

Drawing—Get a blank application for registry from the Secretary of the Guernsey or Holstein Breeders' Association; let each pupil make a copy of it and fill it out with the color and markings of any Holstein cow. Get Perry or Cosmos pictures of Paul Potter's, Van Marcke's, Bonheur's, and Troyon's paintings of kine so that the pupils can see artistic reproductions of cattle. Let pupils sketch calves and cows; even if the attempts are crude they will teach observation.

LESSON ON CATTLE

When we take the subject of cattle for nature-study we naturally follow two lines of inquiry, one regarding the natural history of the animals, and the other dealing with their domestic history and use. First we will study how they live in a wild state, and how they are adapted in form to such conditions.

1. Do wild cattle live in herds or singly?
2. What are their enemies?
3. How does the herd defend itself from enemies?
4. When herds of buffalo or wild cattle are attacked where are the calves, the cows, and bulls stationed?
5. How does the individual defend itself?
6. Are the great heads and shoulders of the bulls developed for fighting enemies or each other?
7. What is the food of wild cattle and where do they find it?
8. How are the teeth arranged to get their food?
9. What is the process of chewing the cud?
10. Can you think of any advantage to wild cattle that comes from the cud chewing habit?
11. Compare a cow's legs and feet to the legs and arms of man and tell what part corresponds to the elbow, wrist, knee, ankle, heel, toes. What part does the cow walk on?
12. In a natural state cattle frequent shallow rivers and marshes in order to get water. Can you think of any advantage which the split hoof gives them in such situations?
13. How are the cow's feet and legs placed when she lies down to sleep?
14. How does she get up and down? Compare in this respect with a horse.
15. When a calf is born in the fields it is often hidden by the cow and lying flat on the ground will refuse to stir when discovered. What is the origin of this habit?

LESSON ON DOMESTICATED CATTLE

16. Name and give brief description of all the different breeds of cattle with which you are familiar.
17. Which of these are beef and which milk producing?
18. What are the distinguishing points of a good milch cow?
19. How many pounds of milk per year should a dairy cow give to be profitable if the product is cheese? If the product is butter? Why this discrepancy?
20. What is the percentage of butter fat in milk necessary to make it legally saleable?

21. How many months of the year should a good cow give milk?
22. Why and where is dehorning cattle practiced?
23. When should a calf be dehorned? How should it be done?
24. Should a dog be used in driving dairy cows? If not, why?
25. Why should a cow be milked during the season by the same person?
26. Why should loud talking and noise during milking time be avoided?
27. Why is a cold barn which allows wind to enter a menace of extravagance in fodder and grain?
28. Why should milk not be strained in the barn?
29. Why is it profitable for the dairy farmer to keep his stable clean and be cleanly in the care of the milk?

Modern European Idealists

EMIL FREY, SWISS STATESMAN

Emil Frey, the eminent Swiss statesman, was born at Arlesheim, Switzerland, in 1838. He graduated at the University of Jena, and in 1860 came to the United States where he entered the Union Army. He fought in the West and in the Army of the Potomac, becoming a captain in 1862, and in 1865, a major. He was taken prisoner at Gettysburg and remained a captive, a part of the time in Libby Prison, for a year and a half. At the end of the war he returned to Switzerland and entered the government service, where, as president of the cantonal government, he rendered excellent service in directing the development of the schools and the forests. Later he became editor of a paper and president of the federal council. From 1882 till 1888 he served as Swiss ambassador at Washington. In 1893 he became president of Switzerland and chief of the war department. Since 1897 he has been director of the International Bureau of Telegraph Administration, a position of great importance. He is a warm friend of the United States.

OPENING OF CHICAGO'S MUNICIPAL MUSEUM

The first loan exhibition of the new Municipal Museum in Chicago was formally opened on February 23, to run for a month. This successfully inaugurated a project which will be continuously carried on with permanent exhibits and a succession of loan exhibitions. The permanent collection of exhibits relating to the City of Chicago will be opened in April.

The Municipal Museum was founded by the City Homes Association and ample quarters have been secured in the fireproof public library building. George E. Vincent is president of the museum; Mrs. Emmons Blaine contributed liberally to the project and is chairman of the entertainment committee; Mrs. Conde Hamlin is director of exhibits; Mr. E. G. Routzahn serves as secretary of the exhibition committee.

The first loan exhibition contained original drawings, models, photographs, maps, charts, and literature, contributed by many foreign and American cities, among which were conspicuous New York, Boston, San Francisco, St. Paul and Minneapolis, St. Louis, Berlin, Dresden, Düsseldorf, Bonn, Cologne, Essen, the city of Paris and minor French cities, Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, Glasgow, Tokyo, Buenos Ayres.

A large collection of exhibits was loaned by organizations such as the Municipal Art Society of New York, and by architects, landscape architects, and other individuals and firms whose work is of public significance. The St. Louis Exposition was largely drawn on both for the loan and the permanent collections.

Valuable assistance was rendered by the Honorable Carter H. Harrison, Mayor of Chicago, in the shape of a circular letter to the representatives of foreign and American cities. The response in the form of gifts and loans made by the German cities, from the remarkable German exhibit at St. Louis, was of an exceedingly substantial character, a representative collection of exhibits being loaned and many exhibits being given outright. Cities of France, Japan, Argentine Republic, Hungary, England. Denmark, and Sweden also made extensive bequests.

The scope of the Municipal Museum is indicated in part by the following classification:

Municipal Administration; Public Art; Public Recreation; Street Making; Street Cleaning; Transportation; Sanitation; Housing; Education and School Extension; Libraries; Charities and Correction; Civic Literature and Statistics.

During the month of the loan exhibition an opportunity was offered to clubs, associations, classes and groups of people to arrange for especially conducted inspection of the exhibits. In connection with such visits speakers on subjects germane to the classification of the exhibition were provided as desired.

MUNICIPAL MUSEUM IN BOSTON

Recently the Twentieth Century Club of Boston appointed a committee to consider with the leading local civic organizations the advisability of establishing a Municipal Museum. This committee, with committees of the following organizations appointed the following executive committee: Warren H. Manning, chairman, Twentieth Century Club; Frederick Law Olmstead, Jr., secretary, Municipal Art League; Edward H. Hartmann, Massachusetts Civic League, and R. A. Cram, Boston Society of Architects. It was de-

cided first, to investigate and record through an indexing bureau the available material and data in the city and its metropolitan districts suitable for such a museum.

It was the sense of the meeting that material should be classified under such headings as history, administration, sanitation, street making, etc., and that at an early date exhibitions of various phases of municipal art be arranged locally in the metropolitan districts.

The committee will have the advice of Mrs. Conde Hamlin, director of the new Municipal Museum of Chicago, and the originator of the municipal museum idea through her success in organizing and arranging such a museum in Minneapolis and St. Paul for the Twin City Building at the St. Louis Exposition. Mr. Frank Miles Day of Philadelphia is to be invited to present his recent address before the American Institute of Architects upon the improvement of cities under the auspices of the association represented.

CLUB STUDY OF CIVIC ART

Outline for study of Robinson's "Modern Civic Art, or The City Made Beautiful."

So many clubs have taken up the study of civic art, using as the basis of their program and as a text book, Charles Mulford Robinson's "Modern Civic Art," * that Mr. Robinson has been compelled, in response to numerous requests, to prepare a brief outline of parallel readings and of appropriate themes for papers. As this may be suggestive and helpful to readers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, the outline is reproduced below:

"MODERN CIVIC ART, OR THE CITY MADE BEAUTIFUL"

Chapters I and II, Introductory.
For the references on pp. 21-22, see Dr. Albert Shaw's "Municipal Government in Great Britain," and Dr. Shaw's "Municipal Government in Continental Europe."

Chapter III, Waterfront.
Look up Charles River improvement in Boston. See Riverfront Improvement Law of Iowa. See "Buying Back a Riverfront" (Springfield, Mass.) in *Architectural Record*, Nov., 1902. Look up the abandoned Naval Arch plan, New York. See note on page 13 "Improvement of Towns and Cities," by Charles Mulford Robinson.

Chapter IV, Land Approaches.
See first part of chapter II "American Municipal Progress," by Charles Zueblin. See pamphlet on "The Railroad Beautiful," by C. M. R. See pamphlet on "Suburban Station Grounds," by C. M. R. See "Railroad Gardening" in Cyclopedia of American Horticulture. Look to Railway Banks Floral Association of England.

Chapter V, Administration Center.
See Bulletin, Hartford (Conn.) Municipal Art Society. Look up the Group Plan of Cleveland, O. See Report of Public Buildings Commission, St. Louis, '04. See pages 219-229 of "American Municipal Progress."

Chapter VI, Street Plan.
See Dr. Shaw's volume on "Municipal Government"—references in Index.

Chapter VII, Architecture.
See Building Laws of Chicago and St. Louis. See Building Height Law of Boston, 1904. Investigate the subject of steel construction, and consider sky-scrapers in their various aspects.

Chapter VIII, Street Furnishings.
(Special attention may be given here to the question of Advertisements.) See chapters V, VI, "Improvement of Towns and Cities." Investigate the work of the Society for Checking the Abuses of Public Advertising in England. See article by C. M. R. in *The Atlantic Monthly*, of March and July, 1904.

Chapter IX, Fountains and Sculpture.
See Brochure of National Sculpture Society on the Value of Sculpture to the Community. See chapter XIII of "Improvement of Towns and Cities."

Chapter X, Street Plotting Among the Homes.
Study the city maps and street plans.

Chapter XI, On Great Avenues.
See on Trees, chapter VII, "Improvement of Towns and Cities." Study of particular streets.

Chapter XII, Minor Residential Streets.
See Publications of Brooklyn Tree Planting and Fountain Society. See Massachusetts and Missouri Tree Laws. See "Tree Planting on Streets and Highways" (New York Forestry Commission, 1902). See "Report on the Street Tree Question" (Hartford Florist Club.)

Chapter XIII, Tenements.
See *Municipal Affairs*, Vol. VI, No. 5. Look up work of City and Suburban Homes Co., New York. Look up Shaftesbury Lectures (England). Study the Garden Cities of England. See "To-morrow" by Ebenezer Homer.

Chapter XIV, Comprehensive Planning.
See article by C. M. R. in *Agricultural Record*, May, '05. See reports of the Expert Commission for Washington. See report of the City Improvement Commission for New York. Look up the "Harrisburg Plan" (Publications of American Civic Association).

*Published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. With illustrations. By mail $3.20. Orders may be sent to Editor THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Hyde Park, Chicago.

Chapter XV, Open Spaces.
See reports of City Parks Association, Philadelphia. For the Playground Movement see periodicals, and reports of the Civic Improvement League of St. Louis and the Recreation League of Louisville.
Chapter XVI, Parkways.
See chapter IX, "Improvement of Towns and Cities." Study particular drives.
Chapter XVII, Distribution and Location of Parks.
See Metropolitan Park Report, Chicago, 1904. See Report of Olmstead Bros., on "Development of public grounds for Greater Baltimore," 1904. See Publications, American Civic Association.
Chapter XVIII, Park Development.
See Publications of American Civic Association.
Chapter XIX, Occasional Decoration.

Dr. Shaw's books are published by the Century Co., "The Improvement of Towns and Cities" by the Putnams, and "American Municipal Progress" by Macmillan. The pamphlets mentioned under chapter IV can be obtained free of charge from the Passenger Department of the Boston and Albany Railroad, South Station, Boston. For the Society for Checking the Abuse of Public Advertising, in England, address 1 Camp View, Wimbledon Common, Surrey, Eng. Other addresses are: Brooklyn Tree Planting and Fountain Society, 177 Remsen Street; Philadelphia City Parks Association, 701 Stephen Girard Building; and American Civic Association, 703 North American Building, Philadelphia.

[These programs will be of special interest to THE CHAUTAUQUAN'S reading constituency in view of the series of illustrated articles on "The Civic Renascence," by Charles Zueblin (September, 1903, to May, 1904) and "Civic Lessons from Europe" (September, 1904, to March, 1905) touching upon phases of the subject of Mr. Robinson's book.—EDITOR.]

MODEL TENEMENTS

Mr. Henry Phipps, the New York capitalist, formerly of Pittsburg, has recently given a fund of $1,000,000 to be used for building tenements in New York City. Under the terms of this gift the tenements are to be built for a four per cent profit after making due allowance for maintenance and repairs. The profit, however, is to be reinvested indefinitely in buildings of the same nature.

Mr. Phipps declares he does not wish to discourage private enterprise from building tenements for profit and for this reason imposes his four per cent restriction. He does, however, wish to set a standard of comfort and decency for private owners and force them in self defense to provide better accommodations than they have hitherto. Mr. Phipps specifies in particular that the tenements built by his fund shall have plenty of light and air, and ample playgrounds for children. The trustees to whom the fund is entrusted include Mr. Phipps himself and a number of men well known in charitable work.

AN ENGLISH SOLUTION OF THE HOUSING PROBLEM

An interesting parallel to Mr. Phipps' recent gift of a fund for model tenements is to be found in a trust fund lately donated by Mr. Joseph Rowntree, an English manufacturer. Mr. Rowntree has purchased near York 120 acres of land which is to be used for the establishment of a garden village. The land is within a mile of Mr. Rowntree's factory and is intended primarily for his workmen but is not restricted to them. As in Mr. Phipps' plan the rents are to accumulate and be reinvested in similar undertakings when suitable occasion offers.

The Garden Village, as its name indicates, provides each house with ample garden accommodation. Those houses already erected have gardens of about 350 square yards each. It is further provided that not less than one-tenth of the total land in the estate, exclusive of roads, shall be laid out in recreation grounds and park, and that houses shall not occupy more than one-fourth of the sites on which they are built. These stipulations promise ample ground, light, and air for every family. The houses themselves, though rather small, are built with an eye to cleanliness, convenience, and comfort. "An effort," it is said, "is being made to provide houses which shall be artistic in appearance, sanitary, and thoroughly well

built, and yet within the means of working men earning the ordinary wages of unskilled labor."

One further quotation is interesting as indicating the liberal and catholic attitude of the donor: "The foundation deed provides that the administration of the trust shall be wholly unsectarian and non-political, and that there shall always be a rigid exclusion of all influences calculated to impart to it a character sectarian as regards religion or belief, or exclusive as regards politics."

AN AMERICAN MODEL TOWN

Mr. Rowntree's proposed experiment with a garden village for the housing of his factory operatives differs only in its emphasis upon the "garden" from an American "model town" already in operation. The Draper Company, which manufactures machinery, has built at Hopedale, Massachusetts, houses for the accommodation of its employees. A tract of thirty acres has been laid out and improved and on this the company has erected houses sufficient to accommodate a population of over 2,000 people.

There are two tenements of six rooms, attic, bath, and basement, to each house, and the houses are diversified as much as possible in outward appearance. Employees may buy their homes if they so desire but comparatively few have done so, the majority preferring to pay the low rent of $3 and $3.50 per week, which the company charges.

The houses are pretty and comfortable and are provided with many accommodations. The company keeps everything in good repair and provides for rigid sanitary inspection. By a system of prizes a keen rivalry for the best appearing yards is kept up, and there is, as a result, little untidiness. The town brings little profit to the employers because of the low rent. Employees, despite these low rents, do not take advantage of the opportunities offered to the extent that might be expected. Whereas the employees of the Draper factory number about 3,000 and with their families would form a city of from 12,000 to 15,000, only a little over 2,000 people live in the model town. It is increasing in size, however, and twenty new houses are reported to be in preparation.

MUNICIPAL BRICK-MAKING

An interesting development in the municipal ownership of public utilities is cited by the English *Municipal Journal*. In 1899 the Woolwich Borough granted permission for the erection of a municipal electric plant at Plumstead. It was planned, also, to provide in the same plant, destructor furnaces for refuse. In this latter connection occurred the interesting innovation referred to. The destruction of refuse, it was found, involved a non-destructible residuum of clinker equivalent to thirty per cent of the total mass. This the authorities deermined to utilize. Accordingly machinery for grinding and pressing the clinker was installed, and the experiment tried of making brick, tile, and paving slabs. The result was thoroughly satisfactory; a superior product was produced at a low cost and there resulted a considerable economy to the municipality. Not only have the bricks been used in all manner of work except face work, but several hundred thousand have been made and stored in preparation for the erection of public baths and wash houses which the council has in contemplation.

A similar plant has been in operation at Fulham for two years and the results have been equally gratifying. During the past six months the destructor plant has made some 12,000 flags and 50,000 brick, the brick costing approximately £1 per thousand, and being of a very high grade, equal to the best London building brick. Already one of the municipal buildings at Fulham has been built from the clinker made brick.

TOPICS IN THE MAGAZINES

The School City. W. L. Gill, *The Commons*, January, 1905.

Chicago's New Park Service. Henry G. Foreman, *Century*, February, 1905.

Use of Growing Plants for Table Decoration. Eben E. Rexford, *Lippincott's*, February, 1905.

Originality in Gardens. L. H. Bailey, *Garden Magazine*, February, 1905.

Beautifying the Ugly Things. Mary Bronson Hartt, *World's Work*, February, 1905.

A Lesson in Municipal Æsthetics. G. W. Harris, *Review of Reviews*, February, 1905.

German and American Forestry Methods. Guenther Thomas, *Forum*, January-March, 1905.

The Young Man of Today as a Social Worker. Winifred Buck, *Outlook*, January 21.

Bird Study in the Schools. Ralph Hoffmann, *The School Arts Book*, February.

Hopedale as a Model Town. *Salesmanship*, January.

Ethics of the Street. Margaret Merington, *Atlantic*, January.

Improvements for New York. By Mayor George B. McClellan. Also, Report of Improvement Commission. Important and comprehensive. *Municipal Journal and Engineer*, February.

People's Palace, Jersey City. John L. Scudder, *Social Service*, January.

FROM THE FIELD

The American Civic Association, Philadelphia, frequently issues a clipping sheet containing news items regarding many features of civic betterment, which friends of the movement could use to advantage with their local editors.

The Municipal League of Harrisburg, Pa., sent the city councilmen (thirty of them) and heads of departments on a special excursion to Boston, so that they might see with their own eyes what had been accomplished there and learn the lesson for Harrisburg. The mayor accompanied the councilmen and their tour of the Metropolitan Park system was directed by landscape architects and the park superintendent. This means of education affords striking contrast to the ordinary type of junketing.

The beautiful city of Madison, Wisconsin, is not content to rely alone upon her natural advantages. During the last twelve years this city of 23,000 people has raised $116,000 to expend in beautifying the parks and drives. Of this amount nearly $40,000 was contributed last year and work is now being completed which will transform a swamp along the Yahara River into a parkway of ten acres. The movement for the city beautiful has had its effect upon the municipal council, which recently voted to build a bridge of cement because of its beauty and permanence, rather than an ugly steel bridge of lesser cost.

Bird-Lore for February contains the annual report of the National Committee of Audubon Societies. The progress of the last year has been very encouraging and societies are now established in thirty-five states with model bird laws in twenty-eight states. Twenty-four wardens are employed to guard colonies of nesting birds and the societies coöperate with national and state game officials. The Lighthouse Board has lent assistance in protecting sea-birds along the coast and President Roosevelt has set aside certain public lands as breeding places for birds. Recently the national committee has become incorporated and proposes to raise an endowment fund of one million dollars of which one hundred thousand dollars has already been promised.

In the management of the municipal school baths of Bradford, England, there arose recently a conflict of authority between the Education Committee and the Baths Committee. A new arrangement was then made under which the Baths Committee has charge of the whole staff of the baths with the exception of those engaged in the discipline and instruction of the children—matters which fall naturally under the jurisdiction of the Education Committee. The school children, both boys and girls, are to use the municipal baths on certain days of the week, at which time the baths are to be closed to the general public. Not only are the ablutionary baths to be used but the children, both boys and girls, are to use the pool baths and be taught swimming by competent instructors.

A recent decision in a Woolwich (England) police court establishes a valuable precedent for tenement house prosecutions in English cities. On a charge that his premises were a "nuisance, and dangerous and injurious to health," a house owner was summoned to court for his failure to comply with a notice served upon him under a Public Health act. The owner's violation of the law consisted in renting a basement for living purposes which had a ceiling below the level of the ground and was so dark that an oil lamp had to be used for lighting during the daytime. The defense maintained that the occupant of the basement had lived there seventy years and had nine children, all living. Despite this plea the owner was fined and ordered to abate the nuisance within a month.

The Woodstock Improvement Society of Woodstock, Vermont, issues at intervals, "information bulletins" with the object of obtaining a "better understanding of the purposes of the society and as a result of this, the more efficient carrying out of those aims." This is its statement of principle: "The first element of beauty is cleanliness and it naturally follows that anything which is spotlessly clean is more to be admired than that which is only clean enough to be tolerated. The appearance of Cleanliness is nŏt enough. It must be absolutely clean throughout, then its beauty is not a veneer, but a reality." In addition to its coöperative work with individual citizens and with the village officers, the society does a number of things on its own initiative. It has secured a dump and is engaging in the systematic removal of garbage from houses and shops desiring such accommodation and willing to pay for it. More unusual, however, for a village society, is the employment of a man to sweep the street crossings in the business part of town every morning, Sundays included.

"Not only is there reason to believe in the holiness of beauty, that it is right, but the movement to further it in towns will prove in itself a very great help to the work of the

church. For it will give a higher trend to popular life; it will awaken worthy ambitions; it will raise public spirit; it will suggest thought of the community instead of oneself; pride in the town instead of in one's own belongings, and finally, an active unselfishness which will express itself in coöperation.

"It is proper that in any movement which, apart from its direct benefit, does all this, the clergymen should be leaders. Nothing less than this will be expected. The church grounds should, certainly, be a model to their neighborhood in respect to neatness and beauty. If necessary the work can be very appropriately begun with the church putting its yard in order, planting vines, grass seed and shrubs if there be room, and thus making the approach to the church and its setting attractive. Indeed, each church should be a little center of wholesome influence regarding civic duty, and there can be no better way to make it visibly this than by giving beauty to its surroundings. The churchyard should be the temple of the Lord not less than the church building.—*From "The Church and Civic Improvement," by Charles Mulford Robinson in The Church Economist, December, 1904.*

GEOGRAPHICAL NOTES

"The fundamental thought of the 'new geography,' briefly stated, is the unity of the earth and the joint action of the forces of nature upon it and upon one another, so that 'nothing stands alone.' This conception recognizes the controlling power of man's hand and mind, shows how his activities are based upon the products of the earth, explains the conditions that must exist for the profitable pursuit of the various industries, and gives reasons for the progress of civilization."—*Morton's Advanced Geography.*

Lessons in the New Geography (Trotter); Methods and Aids in Geography (King); Chalk Illustrations for Geography Classes (Morton); How to Study Geography (Parker); The Teaching of Geography (Geikie); Geographical Spice (Morton); Statesman's Year Book; Dictionary of Statistics (Mulhall); Handbook of Commercial Geography (Chisholm); Lippincott's Gazetteer; Tarr's Elementary Physical Geography; Baedeker's Handbook of Travel; Standford's Compendium of Geography.—*Bibliography in Morton's Advanced Geography.*

CIVIC PROGRESS PROGRAMS

GEOGRAPHIC FACTORS IN SOCIAL PROGRESS

Roll-call: Give some geographic name or fact from today's newspaper.

Summary: Epitomize article on Progress in Geography, by Gilbert H. Grosvenor, in the April CHAUTAUQUAN.

Correlation: Appoint some person to outline briefly the interrelation of the civic topics in the April CHAUTAUQUAN: Berlin I, Germany and the Program of Socialism, Progress in Geography, Schumann and His Music. The American Boy and His College, items in the Survey of Civic Betterment, Highways and Byways, etc.

Definitions: Assign the following to different members to be carefully defined when called upon: geography, commercial geography, physical geography, physiography, meteorology, etc.

Paper: "The Romance and Humor of Geography." History and literature will afford much attractive material for this topic.

Book Reviews: (a) The Story of Geographical Discovery, Joseph Jacobs; (b) The International Geography, Hugh Robert Mill.

Spelling Match or Pronunciation Match: Use geographical names in current use.

Topics for discussion: "Geography and Disease," (see "Progress in Geography" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN); in correlation "The Unity of Human Interests as Revealed by Geography" (see quotation in Survey of Civic Betterment).

Demonstration: A lesson in geography conducted by a teacher, the club or circle constituting itself a class.

Reports: (a) On the actual experiences of a day with the geography classes of your local schools. (b) On the extent and nature of the geographical reading of your community as revealed at the public library. (c) On the maps and other geographic resources of the public and other libraries of the town. (d) On an examination of text-books in geography used in the schools.

Reports: (a) On the possibility of having university extension lectures on geographical topics. (b) On the possibility of including one or several lectures on the local lyceum or lecture course.

Paper: "Geographic Influences." See Geographic Influences in American History, Albert P. Brigham; Stories of American Promotion and Daring, Archer B. Hulbert.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

"Commercial Geography," Cyrus C. Adams, D. Appleton & Co.; "Commercial Geography," T. W. Redway, Scribners; "Physical Geography," G. K. Gilbert & A. P. Brigham, D. Appleton & Co.; "Elementary Geography," Charles F. King, Scribners; "Complete Geography," R. S. Tarr and F. C. M. McMurry, Macmillan; "International Geography," Hugh R. Mill, Appleton.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C. *Journal of Geography,* Chicago. *Bulletin of the American Geographical Society,* New York. *Geographical Journal,* London. *Scottish Geographical Magazine,* Edinburgh.

United States Geological Survey, Washington. Bulletins, annual reports, folios, monographs, and irrigation papers.

Little Chronicle, Chicago, illustrates week by week the correlation of many current events with geographic facts. Twelve times a year the *Little Chronicle* contains a survey of the world's harvests during the current month.

Missionary Review of the World, and other periodicals contain a wealth of varied and attractive material.

For the graphic illustration of geographical facts by simple means see "The United States Compared with Other Countries," in A Complete Geography, Tarr and McMurry.

Excursions and Lessons in Home Geography, and a Teacher's Manual, by Charles A. McMurry, may be examined with interest by many who do not teach and who may long since have passed the school age.

Current Events Programs and News Summary

CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS

DOMESTIC

Roll-call: Answered by Evidences of Aroused Civic Conscience regarding Graft.

Papers: (a) Constitutional Powers of the Senate in Treaty-Making; (b) Changes in Requirements for the Admission of Territories as States of the Union; (c) Review of the Session of Congress Ended March 4; (d) Government Funds and Indian Schools; (e) What Can States Do to Regulate Interstate Monopolies? (f) Character Sketches of the late General Lew Wallace, Mrs. Jane L. Stanford, Frances E. Willard.

Address: Fads in Education.

Readings: (a) From Progress in Geography, Gilbert H. Grosvenor, THE CHAUTAUQUAN, April; (b) From Toledo's Traction Victory, Bernard Dailey, *The Commons*, February; (c) From The Simple Life, John Brisben Walker, *Cosmopolitan*, February; (d) From The Neighbor, Nathaniel S. Shaler; (e) From Social Equality, Kelly Miller, *National Magazine*, February; (f) From The Trend in Higher Education, President Wm. R. Harper.

Discussion: Is the United States Senate an Obstruction or a Safeguard?

FOREIGN

Roll-call: Answers to the question, What is the Monroe Doctrine? Give prize for the best answer from the foreign standpoint.

Papers: (a) Review of the Decision of the Commission on Admiral Rojestvensky's Firing on British Fishermen (Feb. 25); (b) Japanese Achievements in War Transportation and Medical Service; (c) British Rule in South Africa (apropos of appointment of Lord Selborne to succeed Lord Milner as high commissioner, March 2; (d) Venezuelan Troubles; (e) Character Sketches of King Oscar of Sweden, the late Grand Duke Sergius of Moscow.

Readings: (a) From Germany and the Program of Socialism, F. A. Ogg, THE CHAUTAUQUAN, April; (b) From The Doom of Russian Autocracy, E. J. Dillon, *Review of Reviews*, March; (2) From The Situation and Prospect in Russia, Andrew D. White, Ex-United States Minister to Russia, *Collier's* February 11; (d) Present Tendencies of Russian Liberalism, Paul Milyou kov, *Atlantic*, March; (e) From The Conflict in Finland, David Bell Macgowan, *Century*, February; (f) The Storm Petrel, Maxim Gorky, *Watson's Magazine*, March; (g) From Into Tibet with Younghusband, Perceval Landon, *World's Work*, March.

War Report: Progress of Russo-Japanese War during the month.

NEWS SUMMARY

DOMESTIC

February 1.—Unnamed doner gives $1,100,000 to Union Theological Seminary. Minister Bowen recommends that he be recalled from Venezuela and that force be used to bring President Castro to terms. Charges made by Senator Bard that the Catholic Church has attempted to influence his conduct in the distribution of funds for Indian schools are denied by Cardinal Gibbons.

2.—The Interstate Commerce Commission sends testimony to the Attorney-General indicating that the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe Railroad has violated the anti-rebate law. Charles W. Darling, assistant secretary of the navy, resigns.

3.—Republican representatives in conference agree to force Townsend-Esch railroad rate bill through the House. Interstate Commerce Commission declares that the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe Railroad not only has violated the rebate law but has for years been in contempt of court. A. B. Stickney, president of the Chicago and Great Western Railroad, in an address delivered in Washington, advocates governmental regulation of railroad rates.

6.—President Roosevelt signs bill authorizing railroad construction in the Philippines.

7.—The title of Governor Wright of the Philippines is changed to that of governor-general. Senate passes a bill admitting Oklahoma and New Mexico as states; because of its amended form the bill must be repassed by the House.

8.—Representative Comerford of the Illinois state legislature is expelled for failure to prove graft charges. Congress in joint session counts the electoral votes and declares the result: Roosevelt and Fairbanks 336 electoral votes, Parker and Davis 140 electoral votes.

9.—The House passes the Esch-Townsend railway rate regulation bill almost unanimously. Attorney-General Moody appoints ex-Attorney-General Judson Harmon, of Cincinnati, and Frederick N. Judson, of St. Louis, to investigate alleged granting of rebates by Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe Railroad Company, with a view to taking legal proceedings.

10.—Standard Oil Company suspends all work in Kansas oil fields. Judge Swayne makes his first appearance in the Senate impeachment trial.

11.—Judge A. H. Tanner, law partner of Senator Mitchell, of Oregon, confesses to perjury in connection with land fraud cases. Congressman J. N. Williamson, of Oregon, is indicted for conspiracy to defraud the government of public lands. It is officially announced at the White House that all members of the cabinet will be reappointed with the exception of Postmaster-General Wynne, who will be consul-general in London. George B. Cortelyou will become postmaster-general.

12.—A letter from Senator Mitchell to his law partner, indicating complicity in land frauds is turned over to the United States district attorney.

13.—An announcement that the state department would decline to submit amended treaties to contracting governments for ratification arouses bitter hostility in the Senate, already at odds with the President.

14.—President Roosevelt is entertained at dinner by a Republican club in "Little Hungary" on the East Side of New York. Opposition develops in the Equitable Life Assurance Society against its domination by the vice-president, James H. Hyde, who owns a controlling interest in the stock.

15.—The lower house of the Kansas legislature passes the senate bill providing an ap-

propriation for a state oil refinery. At Washington the House passes a resolution demanding an examination of Standard Oil methods by the Department of Commerce and Labor.

16.—The President directs Commissioner Garfield to inquire into the Standard Oil Company's operations in Kansas. The controversy in the Equitable Life Assurance Society is compromised, and it is agreed that it shall be made a "mutual" organization; James H. Hyde is reëlected vice-president. Bishop William F. McDowell, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, Chicago, is elected president of the Religious Education Association.

17.—Governor Hoch, of Kansas, signs a bill appropriating $200,000 for a state oil refinery. Statue of Frances E. Willard is unveiled in capitol at Washington.

18.—Congressman Campbell, of Kansas, supplies Commissioner Garfield with specific charges against the Standard Oil Company.

19.—Fire in Indianapolis destroys a block of buildings valued at $1,500,000.

20.—Over 100 men are reported killed, and 100 entombed in coal mine explosion near Bessemer, Alabama. Mayor Tom L. Johnson, of Cleveland, accuses two members of the city council of receiving bribes.

21.—Illinois house of representatives passes a resolution calling for an investigation of the pipe line which the Standard Oil Company is building across the state. The Texas legislature asks that the oil fields of that state be included in the government investigation.

22.—President William R. Harper, of the University of Chicago, is operated upon and found to be afflicted with internal cancer. The Standard Oil Company is reported as buying up the independent oil companies in Kansas.

23.—Frank Fitz Gerald, young attorney, and son-in-law of D. M. Parry of Indiana, admits that he bribed a number of members of the Indiana legislature.

25.—Arguments in Swayne impeachment trial close. Senator Joseph V. Quarles, of Wisconsin, is nominated to be a United States district judge.

26.—Engineering committee of isthmian canal commission advocates a sea level canal. Illinois Central railway terminals in New Orleans are destroyed by fire; the loss is estimated at $5,000,000.

27.—Senate concludes Swayne trial and acquits the judge of all charges. Henry Phipps buys land upon which to build his proposed model tenements.

28.—Ministers and women in Philadelphia hold prayer meetings in which they pray for Mayor Weaver and other city authorities.

FOREIGN

February 1.—The Tzar meets a delegation of selected workmen, rebukes them for their participation in riots, and promises reforms which will ameliorate their condition. Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky, Minister of the Interior, resigns, alleging ill health. An unsuccessful attempt is made to murder the chief of the Odessa police. The Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria receives the resignation of the Hungarian cabinet.

2.—Russian ministers at work planning reform submit proposals enlarging the powers of the Senate and restricting the powers of the ministers.

3.—Strikes and rioting continue in Poland. Six persons are killed in Lodz by the troops. Arthur Hamilton Lee, civil lord of the British admiralty, intimates in a public speech that England is prepared for any hostile move on the part of Germany.

4.—It is rumored that General Kuropatkin has turned over his command to General Linevitch because of difficulties with General Grippenberg. Czenstochowa, Russian Poland, is reported in a state of panic because of strikers.

5.—Revolution in Argentine Republic is reported under control.

6.—Soisalon Soininen, procurator-general of Finland, is assassinated at Helsingfors. The Servian cabinet resigns. The German mine owner's association refuses to discuss plans of peace with a committee representing the striking coal operatives.

7.—Further excesses are reported in Buenos Ayres. St. Petersburg papers denounce further continuation of the war.

8.—Crown Prince Gustaf becomes temporary regent for King Oscar of Sweden and Norway. Admiral Togo resumes command of the Japanese fleet.

9.—Bloody collisions between strikers and troops occur in Russian cities and general unrest continues. The Rouvier ministry in France presents a new bill for the separation of church and state.

10.—Troops shoot many strikers at Lodz. General Stoessel arriving at Aden, Arabia, says that in surrendering Port Arthur he sacrificed glory to humanity.

11.—Conditions in Poland are grave; 100,000 men are idle at Lodz; 4,000 men strike at Kharkoff.

12.—The strike at Tiflis is said to be broken. Francis Kossuth, leader of the independent party in the Hungarian parliament, has an audience with Emperor Francis Joseph, who condemned his father to death.

13.—The German coal strike is entirely ended and the miners resume operation. Council of Russian ministers plans reforms to improve the conditions of workmen. The North Sea case is closed before the international commission sitting at Paris.

14.—The English Parliament is opened by King Edward.

15.—A general engagement is thought to be opening along the Hun River. The third Russian squadron sails.

16.—Venezuela supreme court reaffirms decision against the American Asphalt Company. Japanese begin the use of siege guns near Mukden.

17.—Grand Duke Sergius, uncle of the Tzar, is killed by a bomb while driving in Moscow. His assassin is arrested.

18.—Postmaster General of England reaches an agreement under which the government will take control of the national Telephone Company on December 31, 1911. Tzar summons his council in extraordinary session to consider the situation of the empire.

19.—Strikes compel Russian government to order $125,000,000 worth of war material in France and Germany. Russian court in state of terror because of the assassination of Sergius.

20.—Martial law is declared at the Tzar's palace at Tsarskoe-Selo. Students of the University of St. Petersburg vote to close that institution for the remainder of the school year; they also protest against the government.

It is rumored that the Tzar will convene a zemsky sobor (national parliament).

21.—Rumors of peace conditions emanate from St. Petersburg.

22.—Kuropatkin is said to have been outflanked in recent engagements and to be retreating.

23.—In Warsaw and Baku clashes between troops and strikers result in a number of killed and injured. It is reported that at Poti the Russian Black Sea fleet bombarded the town which was at the mercy of strikers.

24.—An attempt to assassinate President Morales of Santo Domingo it is feared marks the beginning of another revolutionary outbreak. Agrarian troubles seem imminent in Southern Russia where the peasants have been led to believe that the land is to be redivided.

25.—Decision is reached by the North Sea Commission that is in the nature of a compromise: Admiral Rojestvensky is held not to have been justified by the facts in opening fire on the British trawlers, but nevertheless to have acted up to his beliefs. Japanese gain in renewed fighting.

27.—Japanese are said to have taken Da Pass and another pass of great importance. Maxim Gorky is reported exiled to Riga by order of General Trepoff.

28.—General Kuropatkin is thought to be retiring in the face of the Japanese attack.

OBITUARY

February 4.—Louis Ernest Barrias at Paris.

6.—General Matsumara, leader of the Japanese forces in the attacks on 203 Metre Hill, dies at the front from congestion of the brain.

9.—Adolph Von Menzel, the famous German artist.

15.—General Lew Wallace, at Crawfordsville, Indiana.

19.—Right Reverend William Edward McLaren, Protestant Episcopal bishop of the diocese of Chicago.

21.—General L. G. Estes, commander of the Medal of Honor Legion, at Washington.

28.—Mrs. Jane L. Stanford dies in Honolulu under circumstances that suggest poisoning.

Chautauqua Spare Minute Course

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, complete in the pages of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for 1904-05 beginning with September, has been arranged to meet the demand for a short course of systematic reading in place of haphazard, hit or miss reading to no purpose. The course consists of the seven leading serial topics entitled, "Social Progress in Europe," "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany," "German Master Musicians," "Civic Lessons from Europe," "Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare," "How the American Boy is Educated," and "Nature Study" (the last named beginning in October).

Additional articles and the regular departments of the magazine relate to features of the course and constitute important sidelights upon it. "Highways and Byways" editorial comment on the current events with special reference to the serial topics, "Survey of Civic Betterment," "Talk About Books," "News Summary," programs, helps and hints, and special supplementary articles represent a useful and entertaining variety.

RECOGNITION FROM CHAUTAUQUA

In the last magazine of the year containing Spare Minute Course material, blanks will be printed upon the filling out of which a Spare Minute Course Certificate will be awarded by Chautauqua Institution.

SPARE MINUTE PROGRAMS

The program suggestions outlined under this heading will be based upon features of the "Social Progress Year" of topics as presented from month to month in this magazine. It is better to choose a few program suggestions and carry them out well than to try to do too much at a single session.

Summary: Epitomize article on Germany and the Program of Socialism, by F. A. Ogg, THE CHAUTAUQUAN for April.

Discussion: Differences between German and American Socialistic tendencies and parties.

Papers: (a) Anarchism vs. Socialism; (b) Socialism as a Bugaboo; (c) Character Sketch of Karl Marx; (d) Analysis of Socialist Party Platforms in the Presidential Campaign of 1904.

Readings: (a) From "The Strength and Weakness of Socialism," Richard T. Ely; (b) From articles on Socialism in "Encyclopedia of Social Reform" and "Social Progress Year Book;" (c) From "Our Benevolent Feudalism," W. J. Ghent.

Review: Article on Progress in Geography, Gilbert H. Grosvenor, THE CHAUTAUQUAN, April.

Readings: (a) From The Shrinkage of the Planet, Jack London, THE CHAUTAUQUAN, September, 1900; (b) The Shrinking Earth (poem), Edward J. Wheeler, THE CHAUTAUQUAN, December, 1900.

Address: Purposes and Achievements of the American College.

Additional program material may be found in 'Current Events Programs," "Suggestive Programs for Local Circles," "The Travel Club," etc., on other pages of this issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Correspondence or inquiries may be addressed to the Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, Chautauqua, New York.

COUNSELORS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

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MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, Executive Secretary.

Oh! Never Easter morning yet
But thrilled with secret sign
As if the heavens and earth had met
And pulsed with life Divine;
The air seems full of whisperings—
And every passing breeze
A breath of hope and promise brings
Blown from eternal seas.

—*Martha Capps-Oliver.*

OUR WORLD NEIGHBORHOOD

Those who recall the first appearance of Edward Everett Hale's famous story "Ten Times One is Ten" and the enthusiasm for founding "Harry Wadsworth" clubs which followed it, a score or more years ago, will remember how the most fantastic feature of the book seemed to be the way in which people of all climes and conditions developed a latent talent for friendliness. It made no difference whether a man hailed from St. Louis or Kamchatka or Timbuctoo, the "Ten Times One" clubs were sure to discover his neighborly capacity for "lending a hand."

A glance at the resolutions of the recent Peace Congress held in Boston reminds us how fast the world has been going forward since that day. In the deliberations of this congress, world affairs were discussed in the familiar fashion which might characterize a local civic improvement campaign—France and Germany, Russia and Japan, Armenia and the Congo State, neutralization, universal postage stamps, statistics on the cost of wars, weak nations and native races. What an array of questions the spirit of international neighborliness has brought within our horizon. Some of us may yet live to see the world's "standing armies" disappear in favor of a militia, and the great navies give place to a small international police force to serve literally as "guardians of the peace." As Miss Jane Addams once said, the "nourishing" rather than the "suppressive" side of government needs to be developed. Is it not possible that the twentieth century may evolve a new code of chivalry—the duty of the strong nations to preserve the individuality and foster the distinctive talents of the weaker ones? As we cultivate the neighborhood spirit in our own communities among our vast foreign population we shall find it easy and natural to extend it to the homes from which they came.

SOME SIGNS OF THE TIMES

It is said that the French are taking war pictures out of their schools.

The last Peace Congress emphasized the importance of eliminating military campaigns from our school books and laying more emphasis upon splendid scientific achievements, inventions, and social progress.

The "Primer of the Peace Movement" gives the following striking statement.

In 1900 Agentina and Chile were on the verge of war over territorial boundary disputes but a revulsion of feeling, originating in the noble protest of an eloquent bishop in Argentina, led to an agreement to arbitrate their difficulties. Since the arbitration, which satis-

fied both countries, both have begun disarmament. Chile has turned an arsenal into a trade school, is teaching science more than military tactics to her cadets, and has already spent on good roads ten million dollars received from the sale of warships. In March, 1904, upon a mountain pass on the lofty Andes

STATUE OF CHRIST

Erected on the boundary line of Chile and Argentina.
From "The Republic of Chile," courtesy of Geo. Barrie & Sons.

boundary line there was erected a collossal bronze statue of Christ, as a memorial of the compact of perpetual peace between these nations, and as a better guardian of the border than a cordon of fortresses.

INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY—MAY 18

A program for the use of Circles in celebrating the new C. L. S. C. Memorial Day, "International Peace Day," will be found in another part of the Round Table. Of course, interest in the day will not be confined to circles, for individual readers will doubtless be glad to improve the opportunity to learn more of the progress of the peace movement in this and other countries. The following suggestions give further information as to material available for carrying out the program on page 185:

A very useful little pamphlet compiled by Mrs. Lucia Ames Mead of Boston has been published by the American Peace Society. It contains material used for the Society's exhibit at the World's Fair at St. Louis, and presents the subject from many points of view. It is entitled "A Primer of the Peace Movement," price ten cents. The Official Report of the Thirteenth Universal Peace Congress has recently been issued in a volume of 300 pages containing all addresses, resolutions, etc., at the Congress, price ten cents. Both of these publications can be secured by sending twenty cents to the Editorial Office of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Hyde Park, Chicago.

The Peace Society also furnishes for an additional twenty-five cents a memorial pamphlet containing portraits of "Seven Great Apostles of Peace"—Noah Worcester, H. W. Longfellow, J. R. Lowell, O. W. Holmes, W. E. Channing, Charles Sumner, and Phillips Brooks, with selections from their writings setting forth their sentiments regarding war. Upon the graves of these men in Mt. Auburn, wreaths were laid by the European members of the Thirteenth International Peace Congress.

On Sunday Evening, October 2, 1904, preceding the opening of the International Peace Congress in Boston, a consecration service, at which Dr. E. E. Hale presided, was held in Symphony Hall. The Handel and Haydn Society and Orchestra took part in the exercises, giving appropriate selections from Mendelssohn's "St. Paul" and from the "Messiah." Hymns sung by the congregation included Oliver Wendell Holmes' fine "Hymn of Peace" well known in its musical setting of Keller's "American Hymn." The beautiful words of the closing hymn by John Addington Symonds which may not be so easily accessible to Circles, are given here. It was sung to the familiar tune of Duke Street:

These things shall be!—A loftier race
Than e'er the world has known shall rise,
With flame of freedom in their souls
And light of knowledge in their eyes.

They shall be gentle, brave and strong,
Not to spill human blood, but dare
All that may plant man's lordship firm
On earth and fire and sea and air.

Nation with nation, land with land,
Unarmed shall live as comrades free;
In every heart and brain shall throb
The pulse of one fraternity.

New arts shall bloom, of loftier mould,
And mightier music thrill the skies;
And every life shall be a song,
When all the earth is paradise.

There shall be no more sin or shame,
And wrath and wrong shall fettered lie;
For man shall be at one with God
In bonds of firm necessity.

—*John Addington Symonds.*

IMPORTANT SIDE LIGHTS ON GERMANY

Just now when we are studying Germany, it is a very happy circumstance that

Mr. Andrew D. White is writing "Chapters from My Diplomatic Life" for the *Century Magazine*. Mr. White's long experience in diplomatic service in Germany and Russia has given him an intimate personal knowledge of European events, and his conspicuous ability as a historian combined with an unusually felicitous style, make these "chapters" rarely delightful reading. The November and February numbers which treat of Berlin, and its personalities, no C. L. S. C. member should fail to read. Mr. White's appreciation of some of the lessons which we in America may fitly learn from the old world is expressed in the following paragraph apropos of the German Emperor's interest in dramatic art:

I would desire for my country three things above all others to supplement American civilization: from Great Britain her administration of criminal justice; from Germany her theater; and from any and every European country save Russia, Spain, and Turkey, its government of cities.

TO C. L. S. C. GRADUATES

The "Spare Minute Course" enables any graduate however busy to keep informed upon the great questions of the day by reading THE CHAUTAUQUAN. A seal can be earned for this work as explained on another page of this magazine. Members of the Spare Minute Course have the privilege, as do other seal course readers, of making use of the "Recognized Reading" plan. Some of the great works of fiction with which all should be familiar could be taken up with great profit by these Spare Minute Course readers, as these books supplement the required readings in the magazine. Such books could be reported on the Recognized Reading blank. The Round Table has given a number of suggestions as to books. This plan takes the place of the supplementary courses heretofore provided for graduates.

THE BACH CYCLE IN BETHLEHEM, PENNSYLVANIA

The richness and variety of life in America owes much to the talents which little groups of our countrymen have brought from over the sea. Now and then some man or woman with sympathy and insight sees the possibilities latent in these old world survivals and develops them with splendid results. This is true of the now famous Bach Cycle at Bethlehem, Pennsylvania.

This remarkable musical movement has been inspired and led by a native of the Moravian Settlement, Mr. J. Fred Wolle, whose studies in Germany not only impressed him with the noble qualities of Bach's music, but made him realize that in his own community, instinct with musical feeling and trained for decades in German choral music, he had a rare opportunity for interpreting the works of the master to his countrymen.

MORAVIAN CHURCH
It is at this church, in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, that the Bach Cycle is given.

In 1888 in the old Moravian Church at Bethlehem, Mr. Wolle gave for the first time in America St. John's Passion. Four years later St. Matthew's Passion, and in 1894 the Christmas Oratorio. The extreme difficulties of the Mass in B minor delayed its production, but in 1900 this

also received its first complete performance in America. From that time on enthusiasm rose so steadily that this year a cycle is in progress, three days in December being devoted to the Christmas Oratorio and other productions, three in April to a Lenten Festival when the Passion Music is presented, and three in June devoted to Easter Music.

BELFRY
From this the trombone choir plays to announce a death in the community.

Among the quaint institutions of the Moravians is the trombone choir of thirteen instruments which for more than a hundred and fifty years from the belfry of the church has announced to the settlement by means of recognized chorals, the death of members of the community. There is a legend that once a band of hostile Indians approaching the settlement heard the wierd music of the trombones and fled in fear at the voice of the Great Spirit. Another beautiful custom is the dawn service on Easter morning held in the burying ground. Flowers are laid upon the graves while the trombone choir plays an Easter melody.

The strong religious and musical instincts of the community have made it possible to build up a splendid choir of more than one hundred and twenty voices, and a fine orchestra. The atmosphere of sympathetic appreciation which pervades the entire community is a distinctive feature of the celebration.

CLASS OF 1905

The officers of the Class of 1905 are already planning for the coming season at Chautauqua. Some of the most enthusiastic members are those who never have had the pleasure of meeting a fellow Chautauquan but who are looking forward perhaps to a glimpse of Chautauqua some day and who are meanwhile wearing the class pin, cherishing the class motto, and putting their very best efforts into this their fourth year's work. One member from Illinois speaks of her hard struggles at first as she had planned to work with a Circle but they gave up the attempt and she went on her way alone. Like other people who know the value of the third C. L. S. C. motto, she is now reaping her reward. She writes: "I am trying for the white seals and I feel that the work is a greater pleasure than it has ever been before. It has fully paid me for all the exertion I have had to make." From a country district in New York State, dependent on rural delivery, another member reports: "I am reading alone and being a dressmaker by the day and doing my housework, I cannot get much time, but I enjoy it very much."

These are but suggestions of the spirit of 1905. The coming summer will see a large number of graduates at Chautauqua and at local Chautauquas to show that the "Cosmopolitans" are as broad in their interests as they are in their name.

CLASS PIN, 1905

Much interest has been shown in the class pin. The secretary will be glad to hear from members of the Class. Address: Miss Eleanor McCready, 614 Auburn Ave., Buffalo, N. Y.

A BRIEF SCHILLER BIBLIOGRAPHY

Carlyle's Essay on Schiller. Published in connection with the Song of the Bell and favorite poems in Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s "Modern Classics," No. 14.

Boyesen, H. H. Goethe and Schiller.

Boyesen, H. H. Essays on German Literature.

Calvert, G. H., translator. Correspondence between Schiller and Goethe.

Francke, Kuno. Social Forces in German Literature.

Sime, J. Life of Schiller (London).

Thomas, Calvin. Life and Works of Schiller.

There are numerous translations of the plays. A school edition of William Tell is published by Silver, Burdett & Company.

OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

"We Study the Word and the Works of God." "Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst." "Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY—May 18.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR MAY

APRIL 28-MAY 5—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Berlin I.

Required Book: Studies in German Literature. Schiller: Ballads and Thought Poems.

MAY 5-12—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Social Progress in Europe.

Required Book: Studies in German Literature. Schiller: William Tell.

MAY 12-19—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Social Progress in Europe. Reread.

Required Book: Studies in German Literature. Heine: The Book of Songs.

MAY 19-26—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: German Master Musicians. Schumann.

Required Book: Studies in German Literature. Concluded.

MAY 26-JUNE 2—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Berlin II.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

APRIL 28-MAY 5—

Character Sketch: Emperor William I (see encyclopedias and histories; "Imperial Germany," Whitman; also *Atlantic*, 61:691, and *Harper's*, 68:853).

Reading: Selections from "The Embassy at Berlin," A. D. White, *Century*, 69:301, Dec., '04; or from "The Rise of Berlin," *Harper's*, 102:779, April, '01.

Map Review: A Walk through Berlin.

Roll-call: Answered by reports on previously assigned paragraphs in the article on the German Emperor in *Century*, 69:483, Feb., '05.

Oral Report: A Typical Scientific Institution—The Reichsanstalt in Charlottenburg (see "Seen in Germany," chap. VI, Ray Stannard Baker).

Reading: The People's Theater in Berlin (see The Library Shelf in this magazine).

MAY 5-12—

Quiz on Social Progress article in this magazine.

Oral Reports by two members: The German workingman: what advantages and what disadvantages has he? (see chapters in "German Life in Town and Country," also *Outlook*, 69:637, Nov. 9. This article forms a chapter in "Seen in Germany," by R. S. Baker. See also article on Compulsory Insurance in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 41:48, March, '05.)

Roll-call: Reports on present rulers of the various states of the German Empire (see encyclopedias. Those who have access to Von Schierbrand's "Germany" will find a very interesting chapter on "German Courts.")

Report on Opening of American Chapel in Berlin (see *Outlook*, 69:1076, Dec. 28, '01).

Character Sketch: Bebel, the leader of the German Socialists (see *Review of Reviews*, 28:209-10).

Discussion: Resolved, that the German Emperor is serving his country by checking Socialism as much as possible; or discussion of what German cities do for their citizens (see *Century*, 26:296, and 26:380).

INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY PROGRAM

MAY 12-19—

(See also suggestions in Round Table.)

Responsive Reading: Scripture selections relating to peace.

Hymn: "A Hymn of Peace," Oliver Wendell Holmes, set to the tune of Keller's "American Hymn." This tune will be found in most late editions of standard hymn books.

Reading: Longfellow's poem on "The Arsenal at Springfield."

Paper: Progress of the Peace Movement (see Round Table for sources of information).

Roll-call: Reports on famous workers for peace (see Round Table).

Answers to common fallacies respecting the advantages and necessity of war:

1. That war tends to stimulate the highest virtues—energy, courage, magnanimity, and fortitude.
2. That war kills off surplus population.
3. That barrack drill educates slovenly peasants into clean, well-disciplined men.
4. That armies and navies are but international police and will be needed as long as police are.

5. In time of peace prepare for war.
6. You can't change human nature.

Summary: Of resolutions adopted by the Peace Congress in Boston in 1904 (see official report of Thirteenth Universal Peace Congress).

Oral Reports: The Nobel Peace Prize; How Chile and the Argentine Republic have settled their troubles. (See Round Table.)

Discussion: What can be done to help the cause by editors, ministers, teachers, business men, and parents. (see "A Primer of the Peace Movement").

Hymn: Duke Street, using the words by John Addington Symonds in Round Table.

MAY 19-26—

Roll-call: Quotations from Heine's Songs.

Study of Schiller's "Song of the Bell." A school edition of this has been published in the "Modern Classics," Houghton, Mifflin & Co., for forty cents. It contains also favorite poems, and Carlyle's essay on Schiller.

Selections from Ballads and Thought Poems which illustrate the fact that Schiller's field of study was "history and human aspirations."

Study of "Wiliam Tell:" This should be conducted by a leader specially selected. Each member should be supplied with the full text if possible. (A cheap edition for school use is published by Silver, Burdett & Company.) THE CHAUTAUQUAN for March, 1902, contained a study of this drama with selections. 1. Notice the historical setting of the play. 2. The types of character portrayed. How fully is the many-sided life of the people revealed by them? 3. What ethical ideals are contrasted? 4. Note particularly fine passages.

THE TRAVEL CLUB

[These programs are based upon the Reading Journey topics alone and are prepared for clubs and circles which are specializing upon the travel features of the course.]

Books especially helpful to students of present day conditions in Germany which are particularly recommended to the Travel Club are, "Germany, the Welding of a World Power," by Wolf von Schierbrand; "German Life in Town and Country," W. H. Dawson; and "Seen in Germany," Ray Stannard Baker. Some of the chapters in the first and last books mentioned have appeared in magazines and such references will be given wherever possible in the following programs. "Germany and the Germans," by Dawson, is also an excellent work. It is in two volumes and quite distinct from his "German Life in Town and Country" mentioned above.

FIRST WEEK—

Oral Report: Prussia to the time of Frederick the Great (see encyclopedias and histories in bibliography).

Character Sketch: Frederick the Great.

Oral Report: Potsdam and Its Associations (see Baedeker).

Map Review: A Walk through Berlin.

Oral Reports: The Work of Stein; The Congress of Vienna (see histories).

Roll-call: Incidents relating to the Tiergarten, Unter den Linden, the Royal Opera House, and other objects of interest in Berlin (see Baedeker).

Reading: Selections from "The Rise of Berlin," Whitman. *Harper's Magazine*, 102:779, April, '01; or from "Child Life in Berlin," *St. Nicholas*, 30:298, Feb., '03.

SECOND WEEK—

Roll-call: Reports on social customs in Berlin (see various works in bibliography).

Character Sketch: Emperor William I (see histories; "Imperial Germany," Whitman; encyclopedias, etc.; also *Atlantic Monthly*, 61: 691; and *Harper's Magazine*, 68:853).

Reading: "Triumphal Entry into Berlin," A. Forbes, *Scribner's Magazine*, 12:781, Dec., '92; and from "In and About Berlin," M. B. Norton, celebration of the Emperor's 90th birthday.

Oral Reports: Contemporary events in other European countries during the reign of Emperor William (see "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," and articles on social progress in this magazine.)

Reading: "Emperor William and His Mother," THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 8:486, May, '88.

Review of Chapter XIX on "Social Customs" in Von Schierbrand's "Germany," or of articles on "Conversations with Four German Chancellors," *Century*, 64:154.

THIRD WEEK—

Roll-call: Reports on present rulers of the various states of the German Empire and the customs of their courts (see encyclopedias, also chapter on "German Courts" in Von Schierbrand's "Germany").

Discussion: The German Workingman: the strong and weak points of his position (see chapters in "German Life in Town and Country," "Germany and the Germans;" also *Outlook*, 69:637, Nov. 9. This last article forms a chapter in "Seen in Germany.")

Character Sketch: Bebel, Leader of the German Socialists (see *Review of Reviews*, 28:209-10, Aug., '03).

Quiz on article on German Socialism in this magazine.

Reading: Selections from "William Tell."

Review of chapter on "The Socialist Movement" in Von Schierbrand's "Germany." See also his article in *Review of Reviews*, 28:185, Aug., '03.

Discussion: Strong and weak points of compulsory insurance. See THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 41:48, March, '05.

FOURTH WEEK—

Roll-call: Report on paragraphs in article in February, '05, CHAUTAUQUAN, on German Municipal Social Service.

Reading: Selections from "A Typical Scientific Institution," The Reichsanstalt at Charlottenburg, Chapter X of "Seen in Germany."

Review of Address of Ambassador White at opening of American Chapel in Berlin (see *Outlook*, 69:1076-8, Dec. 28, '01.

Review and Discussion of article on "The Church of the Strong Men," by Gerald Stanley Lee, *Outlook*, 79:336-41, Feb. 4, '05. This and the preceding article suggest ideas connected with modern religious development.

Reading: "The People's Theater in Berlin" (see The Library Shelf in this magazine).

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON APRIL READINGS

WEIMAR, THE ATHENS OF GERMANY

1. The battle of Jena was won by Napoleon against the allied Prussians and Saxons in 1806. 2. The minnesingers were German lyric poets and singers of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. They were chiefly men of noble descent and sang mostly of love. 3. At the battle of Lützen (1632) in the Thirty Years' War, the Swedes under Gustavus Adolphus defeated the imperialists under Wallenstein. 4. The Seven Years' War was waged between Frederick the Great of Prussia and the allied forces of Austria, France, and Russia, and had as its object the control of Silesia. At its conclusion Prussia was one of the great powers of Europe. 5. Fichte was a celebrated German metaphysician; Hegel was a German philosopher and contemporary of Fichte. 6. Schopenhauer, also, was a German philosopher, and the chief exponent of philosophic pessimism.

SOCIAL CONDITIONS IN THE ROMANCE COUNTRIES

1. "Mother and Poet." 2. Metternich was the chief minister of Austria 1809-1848 and dictated the policy of that country. He was also instrumental in forming the Holy Alliance, the league of the reactionary European states for the purpose of checking the spread of revolutionary movements. Through this alliance and through Austria's possession of Lombardy and Venetia, Metternich was enabled to control Italy. 3. He ceded Nice to France for the latter's alliance in the war against Austria. 4. Ugo Bassi. 5. Because of the conflict between the State and the Papacy and the seizure of the Papal State, many Italian citizens have never availed themselves of their right to vote.

THE LIBRARY SHELF

THE PEOPLE'S THEATER IN BERLIN

Germany has in recent years achieved a conspicuous success in supplying recreation for her tired population in the splendid scheme of a People's Theater. Dr. Löwenfeld, the genius of this movement, was a dramatic critic, who had held a professorship in the University of Breslau, and had made his mark in literature as editor and writer; but his sympathy for the working people attracted him to a new field—that of recreation for the poor. The story is well told by Miss Edith Sellers in the *Contemporary Review* for June, 1900, and from this we quote:

A theater, Dr. Löwenfeld holds, is, or ought to be, a place of recreation, a place where men and women are not only amused but where they have their dormant faculties aroused, where their imagination is excited, their feelings are touched, where they are made to laugh and to cry—are humanized in fact. It is a school where they who go are raised above class barriers, are taught to understand the different phases of life, and to sympathize with their fellows—to rejoice with those who rejoice, sorrow with those who sorrow. But, as he complained bitterly, it was a school that in Berlin nine years ago, closed its doors inexorably against the very people who stand most in need of its teaching. At that time the great majority not only of the workers, but of the lower middle classes—national school teachers, clerks, subordinate officers, shop men and women—rarely crossed the threshold of a theatre, unless indeed they chanced to have a ticket for one of the *Freie Volksbühne* entertainments, which the Social Democrats give on Sunday afternoons. For the cheapest seats cost more than three-quarters, at least, of the population of Berlin could afford to pay for an evening's entertainment.

Now that this state of things should exist in a city that prides itself on its zeal for popular education, and spends money without stint on night-schools, was, as Dr. Löwenfeld was never weary of declaring, manifestly absurd. For if a man worn out by a long day's toil can be taught anything it is certainly rather at a theatre, where his eyes and ears are appealed to, than in a class room where he is called upon to think. And if he be too tired to be taught, what he stands most in need of to fit him even physically, for the morrow's work, is wholesome excitement and amusement, and that he has undoubtedly more chance of finding in a playhouse than in a laboratory. . . .

Dr. Löwenfeld possessed rare qualities for bringing to pass a different state of things. He made up his mind that the venture must be self supporting though seats must be available for sixpence. His first step was to secure the coöperation of certain public spirited citizens, then to form a limited liability company with shares at £25 each. Three hundred shares were needed and at this point came the struggle. A few wealthy persons subscribed but the great part of the funds came from artists, professors, and literary men. Still the sum was £2,500 short. Then Dr. Löwenfeld's business sagacity and determination came to the rescue. He refigured his expenses and although the new estimate meant a ceaseless struggle to make ends meet, he felt justified in facing the undertaking and rented a well known theater, the Schiller, in a fairly central position. One vital need of the new enterprise was the necessity for a full

house every night. The problem was solved in this way:

He entered into communication with all the Berlin Friendly Societies, Trades' Unions, Workmen's Clubs, all the non-political labor associations of every sort and kind, in fact; and went about among them giving addresses, in which he dealt with the drama, and its influence on national life and progress. Then, acting in conjunction with several popular leaders, he founded the Theatre Union, every member of which pledges himself to go to the Schiller, or at least to pay for a seat there, once a fortnight. In order to induce men to become members, he arranged that those who did so should have their tickets at the rate of 1s., 9d., or 6d. each, whereas non-members should be charged a penny or two more.

This Theatre Union is one of the most interesting features of the organization of the Schiller. It stands open, of course, to the whole world; all that is necessary to do to become a member is to buy a little book containing six theatre tickets—and they may be of the very cheapest class if the buyer choose—costing 1s., 6d. for the six at the present time. He may pay for them, too, by installments, if he wish; and he is free to give them away, or even to resell them. Each ticket is for a fixed date, and between the date of each ticket is an interval of fourteen days. . . . . Some six thousand members had joined the Union before ever the theater was opened, so that come what would, it could count on an audience of at least four hundred for every evening.

The opening performance on August 30, 1894, brought together a crowded house to see Schiller's "Robbers." Captious critics were there and many others who had looked askance at this new venture, for in general the public had regarded its failure as a foregone conclusion But the excellent scenery, the charming costumes, and the evidences of admirable training and of a high ideal of art which pervaded the entire performance captivated the audience and the People's Theater scored its first success.

The Schiller Company did not rest long on their laurels. On September 2, it brought out "Der Menonit" by Ernst von Wildenbruch, and this, too, proved a great success; a fortnight later it brought out Von Moser's "Veilchenfresser." Then came the storm; the "Veilchenfresser" was pronounced on all sides to be a most improper play for a People's Theater! No one denied that it is quite a delightful comedy, alike witty and humorous, full of whimsical touches, laughter-provoking in the highest degree. That it is thoroughly wholesome in tone, too, even the most prudish must admit; all they could allege against it indeed was that it was written without any special regard for edification. And one might have thought, from the way men talked while this controversy was raging, that the very end and aim of a People's Theater was to provide its frequenters with an opportunity of hearing sermons! Against this assumption Dr. Löwenfeld protested. The poor stand no more in need of edification than do the rich, he maintained stoutly, what they do need is to have the fact brought home to them that life has its humorous side. . . .

In the first annual report the directors of the Schiller Company issued, they were able to announce that the People's Theater was self-supporting and had not a single debt in the world. No interest could be paid on the capital invested in it, it is true, but there was no lack of proof that even interest would be forthcoming before long. At the present time the company pays its shareholders the highest rate of interest it is allowed to pay them, by the articles of its constitution, viz., five per cent. Surplus profits must be devoted to the improvement of the theater. Its financial position is now so satisfactory that its directors are able to give free entertainments from time to time. Occasionally they present the Burgomaster with tickets for distribution among the poorer class of the city's employees; and just now and then, on a Wednesday afternoon, they invite 1,200 school children to pay their theater a visit. Then there is delight among the little mortals who congregate in mean streets.

Nearly* six years have now elapsed since the People's Theater was opened, and from year to year it has become both more prosperous and more popular. Not only do the poor resort to it gladly but the "intelligentia" of all classes. In no other theater, indeed, in Berlin, is such an interesting audience to be found. All sorts and conditions of men are there: white haired professors sit side by side with first-grade teachers; rough-looking artisans with smart young clerks; droschke-drivers with government officials. . . . There are unmistakable signs of poverty about many of these people, in spite of the brave show they make. They most of them exchange greetings, and chat away together in the most cordial fashion; for as, thanks to the Theater Union arrangement, the same four hundred of them are always there on the same evening, in the same seats too, a feeling of good fellowship has sprung up among them. It is a place where lonely sojourners are brought into touch with their fellows, and are given the chance of gaining for themselves friends.

I shall not easily forget a little scene I witnessed at the Schiller one Sunday afternoon last winter. The theater was crowded with working men and women, for their favorite play "William Tell" was to be given. From the moment the curtain was up they sat as if spell-bound. They seemed to know the drama well; not a "point" escaped their notice. When the fugative, whom the Austrians were pursuing, stood there by the lake, vainly imploring the fishermen to save him, the excitement among the audience was intense; and when Tell aimed his arrow at the apple on his child's head, men and women alike held their breath; there was the stillness of death in the theater. Then the demonstrations of delight that followed when the boy sprang forward unhurt! Neighbors clasped each other's hands and sobbed aloud, as if it were some much-loved relative of their own whose life had been in peril. For a moment they had forgotten all their old worries, their life-long toil, completely.

*This article was written in 1900.

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES

A map of the Philippine Islands lying on the Round Table attracted the attention of the delegates and led to various speculations as to its purpose. "Perhaps you think this bears some relation to our discussion of the 'battleship' question today," said Pendragon, "but I assure you its only suggestion is one of peace. You will all be interested to note the location of the first Chautauqua Circle in the Philippine Islands. We have had individual readers in the islands for many years, but this is the first Circle to report. It is at Laoag on the northern coast of Luzon, according to the encyclopedias, a place of some thirty thousand people. Our Circle numbers four men. Whether they are soldiers or merchants or teachers the report does not say, and we shall have to await further news. Meanwhile a message of greeting and welcome goes to them from the Round Table."

The question of the best expenditure of seven million dollars (the price of one battleship) so as to promote the spirit of human brotherhood had been eagerly discussed by the Circles for weeks previous to the Round Table meeting and the delegates were well equipped with suggestions from their respective Circles. The privilege of opening the discussion was given Augusta, Georgia. The Augusta Circle," remarked Pendragon, "is thirteen years old this summer, but that, you know, has been a lucky number in the South ever since colonial days when a favorite dance tune was 'the old thirteen.' These Chautauquans are marking their anniversary in a fitting manner—but I must not anticipate their delegate."

"We discovered that our first impulse while we were waiting to have the chance to spend seven millions," responded the secretary, "was to contribute something without delay to the new Hall of Philosophy at Chautauqua, and we shall send, soon, ten dollars for one of the squares in the pavement of the terrace. We are glad to learn that other Circles are like minded and we want to be represented among them." The Round Table greeted this announcement with applause, and each delegate resolved to go back and make sure that his or her own Circle was giving the subject due consideration. "As to the seven millions," continued the secretary, "it seemed a big undertaking for us, but here are some of our sentiments. You see we live in the South, and the presence of an idle, lazy, shiftless class is even more borne in upon us than among those of you who live in the North.

1. Use the money for great employment bureaus, to provide work in some form for either skilled or unskilled labor with people in charge who would strive to make even the services of the indolent and inefficient count for something.

2. In behalf of moral education. We have not worked this feature out fully—but feel that it is a great need.

3. One of our members says that in this particular case she should limit her idea of 'mankind' first to the boundaries of her own town and then extend the limits to her state. She feels that she could reach in this way an ample number of 'types' of her human brothers! Her activities would include a children's hospital for the mill district, with playgrounds for the convalescent children. Also in the same district cheap restaurants for day workers and in this connection an employment bureau—for about $2,000,000. In order that the fund should not die out she would with the remainder buy up lands in the desolate parts of our state and introduce school farms—dividing profits with farmers and teaching them how to use our wonderful soil, much of which is undeveloped or wasted through the ignorance of the people.

The Marshalltown, Iowa, delegate was next in order. "Our little band of twenty-eight students extends a cordial greeting to all C. L. S. C. members," she said. "We appreciate the inspiration of a good name for we are of the Class of 1906 marching under the banner of Ruskin, and are known as the 'Literature and C. L. S. C. Department' of the Woman's Club of this city. We meet once in two weeks at the homes of members and have papers and discussions which are most helpful. Other members of the Woman's Club frequently attend, and as we have a good Carnegie Library some people who are not reading the regular course use the reference books suggested by Chautauqua, so you see our light shines both on the 'just and unjust' in good scriptural fashion! We are proud of the fact that our town has a Chautauqua Assembly, held for the first time last year. We had daily Round Tables under the guidance of well qualified Chautauquans and through the local Assembly see unlimited opportunities for enlarging our usefulness."

"I may say," added Pendragon, "that these Marshalltown Chautauquans were the first to respond to the suggestion of International Peace Day, asking to be supplied with the programs so that they might make the occasion a fitting one. It is a pleasure to feel this quick response from our Circles. It shows the open-mindedness which we always expect from true Chautauquans."

"Before I report on the use of our millions," remarked the delegate from Corinth, Mississippi, who was next asked to speak, "I want

IOWA

Centerville, Aug. 4-13.
Manager, J. M. Beck, Centerville, Ia.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Inez F. Kelso, Humeston, Ia.

Marshalltown, Aug. 12-20.
Manager, Elijah Brown Jones, Marshalltown, Ia.

Waterloo, July 11-Aug. 2. July 20.
Manager, Rev. Frank L. Loveland, Waterloo, Ia.

KANSAS

Winfield, June 20-30. June 26.
Manager, M. L. Wortman, Winfield, Kans.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Alma F. Piatt.

KENTUCKY

Owensboro, Aug. 2-17. Aug. 14.
Manager, W. G. Archer, Owensboro, Ky.

MAINE

Ocean Park, July 20-Aug. 31. Aug. 10.
Manager, Rev. W. K. Twort, 12 Reservoir St., Lawrence, Mass.

MARYLAND

Washington Grove, July 4-Sept. 1. Aug. 17.
Manager, W. H. H. Smith, Room 382, Navy Dept., Washington, D. C.

MISSOURI

Carthage, July 3-12.
Manager, H. J. Fitzer, Carthage.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. Alma F. Piatt.

NEBRASKA

Beatrice, July 6-18.
Manager, Fuller Swift, Des Moines, Ia.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Julia Fuller, Beatrice, Neb.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Hedding, Aug. 7-26.
Manager, Rev. E. E. Dorion, Franklin Falls, N. H.

NEW YORK

Chautauqua, June 29-Aug. 27. Aug. 16.
Manager, Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, N. Y.

OHIO

Bethesda, Aug. 2-16. Aug. 12.
Manager, Rev. M. J. Slutz, Barnesville, O.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. P. U. Hawkins, Barnesville, O.

Delaware, July 21-Aug. 4.
Manager, Rev. Milton W. Brown, Westwood, Cincinnati, O.

Defiance, Aug. 3-13.
Manager, Rev. A. P. Murphy, Defiance.

OKLAHOMA

Kingfisher, June 1-11.
Manager, J. H. Parker, Kingfisher.

PENNSYLVANIA

Mt. Gretna, July 3-Aug. 4.
Manager, L. E. McGinnis, Steelton, Pa.
C. L. S. C. Representative, L. E. McGinnis.

Naomi Pines, July 10-Aug. 5.
Manager, G. P. Eckles.
C. L. S. C. Representative, J. H. Morgan, Ph. D., Carlisle.

SOUTH DAKOTA

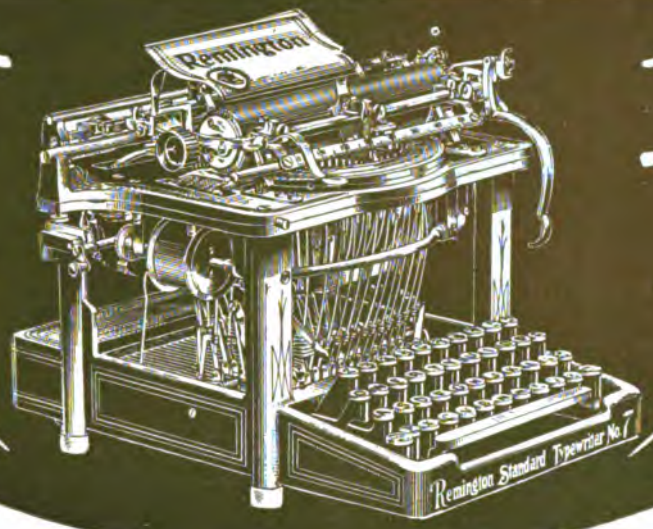
Madison, June 24-July 1.
Manager, H. P. Smith, Madison, S. D.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. Hugh Robinson, Madison.

VIRGINIA

Shenandoah Valley, Aug. 4-16. Aug. 12.
Manager, A. P. Funkhouser, Harrisonburg.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Jessie Funkhouser, Harrisonburg.

WISCONSIN

Waupaca, Aug. 8-22.
Manager, H. A. Larson, Waupaca.



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1905

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Official Publication of Chautauqua Institution

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THE NEW "DOM," PROTESTANT CATHEDRAL AT BERLIN

See C. L. S. C. Round Table, page 277.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

VOL. XLI. MAY, 1905. No. 3.

WE have had occasion heretofore to direct attention to the rapid growth of "municipal ownership sentiment" in Chicago—a growth of which evidence of a striking character more than one "referendum" under the Illinois public policy act (which permits expression of public opinion on important questions in the abstract) had furnished. In the municipal election of April 4, when a mayor, other city officials, and thirty-five aldermen were chosen, the people of Chicago once more, but no longer in an academic or abstract way, were called upon to declare themselves with reference to municipal ownership. The election, indeed, together with the campaign which preceded it, must be regarded as one of the most significant and momentous ever held in the United States in the sphere of municipal life.

The issue was very simple at the outset, though the discussion "on the stump" tended to confuse the voter. The Democrats adopted a platform demanding "immediate" municipal ownership of the street railway systems of the city and nominated for mayor Judge Edward F. Dunne, a political radical who had for some years advocated that solution of Chicago's puzzling traction problem. As the traction companies now occupying the streets have franchises and claims that, as they contend, give them practical control of most of the streets for half a century to come, "immediate" municipal ownership does not mean literally and exactly what the phrase would generally convey. It means immediate steps *toward* municipal ownership, such steps comprising, first, a municipal traction system on those streets which the companies no longer control, their franchises having expired as to them; definite proclamation by the city of an anti-franchise policy, and the acquisition by fair bargaining or condemnation proceedings, of the vested rights of the companies, The city is poor, and its bond-issuing power is exhausted; but under recently enacted "enabling legislation" it may issue certificates and with the proceeds thereof acquire the traction systems. It is assumed that these certificates will be accepted either by the companies themselves, as they carry a virtual mortgage upon the property thus paid for, or by other investors preferring a five per cent security to such as are generally obtainable.

The Republican platform opposed "immediate" municipal ownership while indorsing the alternative in principle. It declared the city legally and financially estopped from making a sudden change in its traction policy and favored a compromise with the companies on terms just to both parties. In the event of a refusal of such a compromise by the companies, the Republican candidate, John M. Harlan, a son of Justice Harlan of the federal Supreme Court, suggested, instead of purchase or condemnation of the properties, the gradual construction of a competing system, with subways in the central section of the city, by the municipality. As the probability of a settlement with the companies is very slight, their inflated and watered stock precluding the acceptance of terms based on equitable regard for the interests of the city, it was generally felt

that even the election of Mr. Harlan would mean war, not peace; hence the difference between the two candidates was, at bottom, one of method rather than of principle.

RT. HON. WALTER H. LONG

New Chief Secretary for Ireland.

In electing Judge Dunne by a substantial majority the voters of Chicago, therefore, not only declared in favor of municipal ownership of the street car system (and by implication, of other public utilities), but expressed a decided preference for the Dunne method or plan of accomplishing that purpose. They voted against a "settlement" with the companies and against any extension of the franchises. They voted for immediate steps in the direction of municipal ownership. Hatred of the present companies is the chief cause of this action on their part. Chicago will have nothing more to do with the sort of private ownership it has endured for years. It wants a radical change at the earliest possible opportunity.

"Back to the Land" and Pauperism

Mr. H. Rider Haggard, the popular British novelist, has been appointed special commissioner to inquire into the conditions, character, and management of various agricultural colonies organized in this country by the Salvation Army, by philanthropic citizens and by the Mormons of Utah. That such colonies not only exist here, but that they have features repaying inquiry by a government commissioner, must be "news" to a good many Americans.

For years Mr. Haggard interested himself in the British agricultural problem. Rural England, it seems, is being depopulated, and the land is being abandoned by the agricultural laborers and by the younger generation. This tendency of the young to flock to the already congested cities is deplored as one of the greatest evils of modern times. The excitements and attractions of city life are potent factors in this movement, and Mr. Haggard believes that the only way to check it is to create counter-attractions in the country. The lot of the agricultural laborer is hard in England. He is hardly able to make both ends meet, no matter how industrious and economical he may be, and he is naturally unwilling to remain in the country without the prospect of acquiring land or accumulating a little money.

On the other hand, the overcrowding of cities causes involuntary idleness, extreme poverty, and pauperism. The army of unemployed is ever increasing, and the burden of relief ever heavier. Cannot the poor of the cities be induced to go "back" to the land? Is not colonization on a large scale the true and permanent solution of the problem of the unemployed? Mr. Haggard points out that there are great tracts of unoccupied land in the British colonies, especially in Canada and South Africa, and he hopes to be able to suggest some practical plan "for bringing the landless man to the manless land."

We have heard not a little regarding the "vacant lot colony" scheme and the "potato patch" idea, with which the late Governor Pingree of Michigan was peculiarly identified. Mr. Haggard and the British colonial office apparently believe that these enterprises will repay closer study. But what has chiefly attracted Mr. Haggard's attention, it seems, is the colonization work of the American branch of the Salvation Army. The "army" has three colonies in operation—one at Herrick, Ohio; one at Fort Amity, Colorado, and one at Fort Romnie, California. There are about six hundred settlers in

these colonies, all men "converted" or "redeemed" by the army. Each colonist is provided with a home, twenty acres, and the necessary tools. He is expected to pay a certain sum annually, and to discharge the entire debt in about eighteen years.

Whether any government will ever undertake to colonize the unemployed on such a basis as this, is at least doubtful. Private benevolence, however, may apply the scheme The late Cecil Rhodes hoped to colonize South Africa in some such way, and the expenses of Mr. Haggard's investigation are in fact, to be paid by the Rhodes estate. In this country the question of colonization as a remedy for extreme urban poverty has been discussed recently in certain review articles.

Copyright and Foreign Books

There is much dissatisfaction with our present copyright law—originally a compromise reached with great difficulty. Certain American authors, with Mr. William D. Howells at their head, complain that the law has deprived American readers and book-buyers of hundreds of good books. It grants copyright to foreigners only on certain conditions the chief one being publication of the copyright work in this country simultaneously with its publication in the author's own country and the setting of the book in this country from American type. It is asserted that in many cases the demand for a book of merit does not warrant the expense of a special publication in this country, and that literature of the higher sort suffers from the restriction. Leading publishers vigorously dispute this assertion, however, and the question is open.

EDWARD F. DUNNE
New Mayor of Chicago.

At the recent session of Congress the copyright law was amended at the instance of those who feared the displeasure and possible retaliation of foreign, non-English-speaking nations. As it stood, the copyright act made no distinction between English books written and published abroad and books in other languages. Hence the requirement of "simultaneous publication" meant, in the case of German or French or other books in languages foreign to us, a translation for the American market before the publisher could form any idea with regard to the popularity of or demand for any book. This need of a translation clearly establishes a distinction between British, Canadian, or Australian books on the one hand, and books in other languages than English on the other.

LORD SELBORNE
New High Commissioner for South Africa.

This distinction is now recognized by the copyright law as amended at the late session. Books in foreign languages will not need to be published "simultaneously" with the issue abroad. A copy will have to be deposited in the Library of Congress on the day of publication, but the author and publisher will have a year's grace for translating the book.

This reasonable amendment has aroused no little indignation in England. Prominent British authors and newspapers profess to see in it flagrant and unjust "discrimination" against English-speaking foreigners. They allege that the amendment places such foreigners under special disadvantages in the American

market, and advocate "reprisals." Americans are accused of selfishness and a grasping, monopolistic spirit, and the only way to teach us literary "reciprocity," it is vehemently declared, is to keep our books out of the British market or to deny us copyright except on condition of simultaneous publication from type set and plates made in England.

KING OF SWEDEN
Who has made the Crown Prince, regent.

It should be added that the "simultaneous publication" provision of our copyright law was inserted at the demand of the printers, who, had for years opposed a copyright law on the ground that it would deprive them of work by prohibiting the "pirating" of foreign books.

A Fraud on the State of Colorado

The settlement, so-called, of the Colorado gubernatorial contest is denounced even by Republican newspapers as a shameful violation of the fundamental principles of republican government. It is a fraud on the people of the state, a gross abuse of partisan power.

Readers will remember that last November the election returns indicated the defeat of Governor Peabody, whose administration was open to serious criticism on account of the violent and lawless methods he used and permitted in fighting lawlessness, by the Democratic candidate, ex-Governor Adams. The latter's plurality was placed at about 10,000.

Immediately the cry of fraud was raised by the Peabody partisans, and the intention to prevent the inauguration of the executive-elect was openly and repeatedly expressed. No doubt there had been fraud at the election; several persons were subsequently found guilty of such crime and sent to jail. But the fraud was not confined to Democratic election judges and Democratic politicians and voters. There was as much Republican fraud, apparently, as there was Democratic in Colorado politics.

Sober counsel prevailed, and Mr. Adams was inaugurated. Mr. Peabody at once began a contest before the legislature, claiming that an honest count of the ballots would prove that he had been elected to succeed himself. The legislature was Republican and a partisan decision in the contest was freely predicted. Fortunately a minority of the Republican delegation in the legislature refused to countenance open and flagrant contempt of the popular will, and decency was externally observed.

However, the Republican majority threw out one Democratic precinct after another until the Adams majority was converted into a minority. Even at that stage not all the Republican members were willing to unseat the executive and declare Peabody to have been elected. The Supreme Court was consulted as to possible alternatives, and it decided that the legislature must choose between Adams and Peabody.

Finally, a new solution was hit upon. It involved the unseating of Adams, the seating of Peabody under a pledge of immediate resignation and the fulfilment of this pledge in order to make the lieutenant governor, Jesse F. McDonald, a Republican, chief executive of the state. A number of Republicans protested against the trick, but they were not strong enough numerically to defeat it. The plan was successfully carried out and the present governor of Colorado is a man the people did not nominate or elect to that office. Either Adams or Peabody was elected executive, and the "settlement" is as unrepublican is it is discreditable to those who effected it. To what lengths of

usurpation and infamy partisanship and corporate domination cause alleged representatives of the people to go in some of the states of this Republic!

The "Recall" in American Politics

After the referendum, which is making steady progress in this country, not only in local but also in state politics, and after the initiative (that is, the opportunity to propose or demand legislation), which is making its way slowly, what? We spoke in our last issue of various reforms, once regarded as radical and chimerical, that today find support in "conservative" official messages, and we must add to the list another innovation—the institution known as "The Recall."

In some of our cities (notably Los Angeles) this institution has been established on a firm foundation, and in many others the radical elements are beginning to advocate it as a logical corollary of the referendum. The recall is applied to men, not to measures, to officials elected by the people and therefore responsible to them rather than to the higher officials. Appointed officers may be removed for inefficiency or negligence or dishonesty, while elected officers, as a rule, are practically "safe" during their terms. Impeachment proceedings are rare, and only the gravest reasons justify them. Why, it is asked, should the people who elect an alderman, or county commissioner, or legislator, or executive be required to submit to bad service or worse on the part of their nominal servants and representatives? Why should not the power to elect be accompanied by the power to retire one elected, at any time during his term, for adequate cause?

And this is the power which the recall confers. Recall statutes generally provide that a certain specified per cent of the registered and qualified voters shall have the right to propose the recall, or compulsory retirement, of an official whom they believe to have violated his trust, his duty to the people, and that upon a petition of this sort, a vote shall be taken in the section or municipal corporation represented by that official as to his recall. A majority, under such law, may recall a public servant, or practically dismiss him for intellectual or moral shortcomings exhibited in office.

That this would constitute a check upon wrongdoing or indifference to duty, and would render officials more directly and truly "responsible," is obvious. The principle is receiving sympathetic consideration in several quarters, and a few more scandals like those recently witnessed may make the recall a live and prominent reform proposal.

CROWN PRINCE OF SWEDEN
Who has become the active head of government.

Commissioner Garfield's "Beef Trust" Report

No useful purpose seems to have been served by the publicaton of the one-sided and incomplete, and therefore misleading, summary of Commissioner Garfield's report on the operations, capitalization. profits, etc., of the great meat packers. It has been severely criticized as an attempt to "whitewash" the "beef trust," and the Kansas legislature, of late so active in the work of "trust busting," has denounced its author in strong terms. On the other hand, the friends of the packers have hailed it as a vindication for the latter and as a plain refutation of the charges so long current.

Neither view is wholly sound. The report, as submitted, dealt with many matters which, in view of the proceedings of the Department of Justice, could not be made public without hampering the gov-

lican followers have been converted to "Bryanism."

In truth, however, the new issues have played havoc with old party lines and traditions, and there is much "radicalism" in the Republican ranks and much "conservatism" in the Democratic. Governor (and now Senator-elect) La Follette is as radical as Mr. Bryan ever was, and President Roosevelt is nearer to Gov. La Follette than to Republicans like Senators Aldrich, Platt, Elkins, and Penrose. In the course of time matters will doubtless adjust themselves and the parties will again represent sharp differences of opinion; but the *personnel* of each of them will have undergone considerable change.

PRESIDENT CASTRO OF VENEZUELA

Our Troubles with Our Southern Neighbors

The extraordinary session of the Senate which the President called just before the late Congress adjourned without date did not ratify the treaty with Santo Domingo, the main purpose and effect of which we explained in last month's issue. The convention was vigorously debated in executive session, and many material amendments were proposed and incorporated. The chief of these was a clause limiting the adjustment of claims to those cases in which the consent of the creditor nations should be obtained. This, undoubtedly, made the treaty less hazardous in conservative opinion, as it removed the danger of offending European powers and appearing to claim the privilege of passing upon claims of their subjects without authority or invitation.

Still, the opposition to the "new departure" was so serious, and not only in Democratic but also in Republican circles, that the Senate concluded to postpone action thereon indefinitely, notwithstanding a second message from the President urging an early decision.

There are those who believe that the treaty is dead—that the Republican leaders of the Senate have no intenton of ratifying it, and that the Dominican financial difficulties will be adjusted during the summer in some other way. Others think that at a special session which, according to persistent reports, the President has determined to call in the autumn, on or about October 1, the Senate will approve the convention on its merits, the discussion, as well as the logic of events, during the interval being expected to remove many of the objections entertained "at first sight" by the critics of the proposed arrangement. Meantime the Dominican situation threatens to develop complications of an unpleasant, if not unfamiliar sort. There is talk of "revolution" and military plots against President Morales, the present "dictator" of the "republic." The failure of the treaty at the special session of the Senate is supposed to have undermined Morales' authority and encouraged his rivals, ex-dictators and exiles, to attempt an attack on his government.

There are possibilities of trouble also with President Castro of Venezuela. The cloud, as yet, is no larger than a man's hand, but Washington correspondents believe that it will spread in the next few months. There is no issue between Venezuela and the government of the United States. The difficulty in question arises out of private claims, of alleged grievances of American citizens having "vested rights" and franchises in that republic—rights which President Castro is accused of wantonly and maliciously attacking. The chief victim, it appears, is the American Asphalt Company. Last year, it is

true, President Castro ordered the seizure of the company's landed property, on the ground that not only had it violated the terms of its franchise, but, that, in addition, it had aided and abetted revolt and treason against the Venezuelan government. The case went to the courts, where it is still under consideration, though a preliminary decision was rendered some weeks ago in favor of the government.

It is alleged by certain American writers that the Venezuelan courts are not independent and that, owing to interference and pressure by the executive, the asphalt company cannot obtain justice in them. It is for this reason that the United States is urged to intervene and force President Castro to restore the sequestered property or accept impartial arbitration of the dispute. Castro has refused arbitration as an unwarranted reflection upon the courts and government of a sovereign state, but the refusal may not be final. At any rate, it is difficult to see how "the asphalt mass," as some call it, which involves questions of fact, can justify the use of force or even a "show of force" by the United States. We cannot *assume* that the courts of another power are corrupt and untrustworthy, and proof of the charges so freely made by the agents of the company will never be furnished. Certainly there is no occasion for tall talk and aggression until the highest courts of Venezuela have rendered their decision.

Equal Rights and Coeducation of Races

The Kentucky legislature enacted a law last year prohibiting white and colored persons from attending the same school. The act was directed against Berea College, in Madison County, an institution which was established by Kentucky and Southern abolitionists in the sixties of the last century. At the time this law was under discussion in the legislature it was asserted by Northern writers that the legislation was gratuitous, uncalled for and contrary to the sentiment of Berea and of the college students. Hundreds of colored youths had been graduated by the college, and never had the white students, always numerically stronger, complained of the effects of the principle of coeducation as applied there.

PRESIDENT MORALES OF SANTO DOMINGO
His assassinaion was recently attempted.

However, the act was passed and became law. At once the question of its constitutionality was raised. The college authorities contended that it was repugnant to the spirit of certain fundamental provisions of the Kentucky bill of rights, especially those which secure to all citizens the right of enjoying and defending their liberty, the right of worshiping God according to the dictates of their consciences, the right of seeking happiness, the right of free speech, etc. A friendly test suit was arranged, the college meantime continuing its traditional policy.

In a decision rendered some time ago the law was sustained by Judge Benton of the Circuit Court of Madison County as a proper exercise of the police power of the state—a power which every constitution presupposes and with reference to which all provisions of law must be construed by the judiciary. The court said:

The idea which influenced the legislature to pass the act must have been that the association, whether voluntary or involuntary of the persons of the negro and white races in the intimate relation which would reasonably be expected to follow from their being received together as pupils to be educated in the same institution, at the same place and at the same time, was inimical and detrimental to the public peace and morals, and hurtful to society. If such a view on the part of the legislature was a reasonable one, the legislation in question cannot be held to be an unwarranted

exercise of the police power. The real question is, was the possible danger to the public peace, morals and to the welfare of society from such an association so obvious that the legislature could reasonably anticipate such danger, and therefore be warranted in taking this step to avoid it?

GENERAL LINEVITCH

Who succeeds Gen. Kuropatkin.

And this "real question" the court answered in the affirmative, in the light of the settled policy of the state in relation to negro education, to marriage between any white person and a colored one, and to social intercourse generally. The state provides for the maintenance of schools for white and colored children and requires railway companies to furnish separate coaches. At the same time it is making liberal appropriations for the education of colored children and constantly evincing a spirit of sympathy with the black man. In view of these facts the court did not feel warranted in assuming that the anti-coeducation act was the product of prejudice and ill will. If, then the motive of the legislation were proper and pure, it was not for the judicial department to overrule it on the above formulated question of fact—the danger of such association as the Berea College maintained. The case will be carried to the higher courts of the state and, if need be, of the United States.

The Crisis in Russia, and Peace Prospects

Since the publication of the Tzar's epoch-making rescript, containing the definite promise of the creation of a national assembly to deliberate upon and advise the government in matters of legislation, there have been few noteworthy developments in the internal situation. The various committees of ministers, with the aid of selected outsiders of distinction, have been elaborating the announced reform plans, and very little progress has been made. Considerable delay is anticipated, but some change for the better has already taken place. The press, for example, though nominally still subject to the old and galling restrictions, has exercised a remarkable degree of freedom in dealing with the war, with administrative and bureaucratic abuses, with national needs, etc., and the government has not seriously disturbed it of late. The editors and writers, assuming that a new and progressive era is about to be ushered in, are drawing on their future accounts, as it were, and quietly disregarding existing laws. Among the questions under consideration by the ministerial committees and commissions are: greater liberty for the subjects and less police and administrative tyranny; agrarian reform; revision of the press laws; factory labor and the improvement of its conditions; freedom of conscience and the proper treatment of non-conformists; rights of non-Russian subjects of the Tzar as to residence, education and professional activity, and so on.

While strikes, peasant uprisings and disorders have continued, and the government has used severe measures of repression, the liberal and educated classes of Russia are willing to wait a reasonable period and give the government "a chance," an opportunity to carry out its promises of substantial and honest reform in several directions. Even the extreme revolutionists are doubtless disposed to grant another "truce." In Poland and Finland violence has been used and attempts have been made on the lives of obnoxious officials, but these incidents are not, strictly speaking, part of the conflict between the radicals and the discredited autocracy.

The paramount question in Russia since the great battle of Mukden has been,

war *vs.* peace. The war party has steadily been losing ground. The press has been practically unanimous for peace on the best terms obtainable at this stage of the conflict. Even the reactionary and jingo organs that had clamored for "vigorous prosecution of war" and for victory at any cost, have realized the folly and danger of further resistance to the inevitable. But will Japan prove herself "reasonable?" Will she offer terms that Russia can afford to accept?

It is understood that the latter would restore Manchuria to China, recognize Japan's paramount position in Korea, cede Port Arthur to her (humiliating as this would be) and, perhaps, level down the Vladivostok fortifications and make that port a purely commercial point instead of a naval and military base. On the other hand, it is generally assumed that Russia will not agree to pay an indemnity. If Japan means to insist upon that condition, the war may go on indefinitely. Other difficulties have been mentioned, but none is so serious as the indemnity question.

Meantime the military situation is as bad for Russia as it can possibly be. The retreat from Mukden was disastrous; the pressure on the part of the Japanese has been continuous, and it is doubtful whether General Linevitch (Kuropatkin's successor in command of Russia's forces) will be able to hold Kirin, an extremely important strategic position on account of its arsenal, its stores and supplies and the rich grain fields it commands. Indeed, it is feared in Russia that even Harbin, the great railway center, may have to be evacuated. An early attack upon Vladivostok is quite likely, and that fortress must share the fate of Port Arthur, unless the Baltic fleet engages the Japanese ships and gives a good account of itself—a contingency scarcely anticipated by impartial naval authorities. Even in Russia there is little confidence in Rojestvensky's ability to regain control of the sea. Yet Russia may decide to stake everything on the results of a naval engagement.

In the financial markets of the world the credit of Japan is stronger now than it was six months ago; that of Russia is weaker. The former's recent $150,000,000 bond issue was promptly and eagerly taken, though the interest charge, in the long run, will not exceed five per cent. Russia had considerable difficulty in placing her recent loan in Paris, and might have failed altogether had not rumors of an early peace been actively circulated in the capitals of Europe. That the diplomatic circles believe peace to be near is hardly open to doubt, but at this writing there is nothing definite pointing to this universally wished-for consummation.

"You can lead a mule to water, but——"
—*From the Cleveland Plain Dealer.*

What the Paragraphers Say

Mr. Rockefeller might try making some liberal contributions to the anonymous conscience fund.—*The Commoner, Nebraska.*

It would be a tremendous joke on the financiers who lent money to Santo Domingo to let them foreclose on the country.—*The Detroit Free Press.*

The Tzar has decided to have a new ambassador at the Hague. But why should the Tzar have an ambassador at The Hague?—*Chicago Record Herald.*

Among the improvements contemplated by the nation's railroads this year is the adoption of the block system in the United States Senate.—*The New York American.*

ENTERPRISE!—Nothing is sacred to a billposter. The walls of a house on the east side of New York, where several persons had been burned to death, were scarcely cool before they were covered with the gaudy bills of a variety theater. The fire escapes also were hidden by posters.—*The Fourth Estate, New York.*

Social and Industrial Russia

By Frederic Austin Ogg
University of Indiana. Author of "Saxon and Slav."

UNTIL well within times which men still living can remember, the treatment of such a subject as social progress in Europe would not have seemed to involve necessarily any particular mention of Russia and things Russian. For, in the first place, Russia, while marked off in the geographies as a part of Europe, was regarded as essentially Asiatic in population and character, and, in the second place, such progress as her people were known to have made was looked upon as so small as to be a negligible quantity. Today, however, matters are different. Russia is coming to be more and more identified with the life and interests of the rest of Europe; and, as for the sort of social advancement which has so distinguished the French, the Germans, the Italians, and the English in the last hundred years, there are abundant evidences that that has never been entirely lacking in the country of the Muscovite and that it may there soon achieve results which will fairly startle the world. It is true that Russia as a nation is just now suffering terribly in prestige by reason of the trend of the war in the Far East, and also by deeds of violence and the rule of terrorism among her people at home. But this does not at all diminish the importance of the Russian people from the standpoint of western civilization; indeed, the crushing of Russian imperial ambition in the East may well be the means of forcing tremendous social changes at home which would be impossible in the event of victory over the Japanese, and which will make Russia count for vastly more in the development of European civilization than ever before. If history teaches anything it is that a nation does not need to be powerful in arms in order that its people may be influential in the world's affairs. It is inconceivable, with her resources and population, that Russia should ever long remain in an inferior rank from the standpoint of military force; but even if she should do so, the influences of Russian civilization will multiply and expand, if not in the East, even the more certainly in the West. It would be foolish to affirm that internal development—social and industrial progress—will go on irrespective of the external fortunes of the nation. The two must ever be closely interrelated. But yet, whatever may come to Russia as an empire—as a political structure—the Russian people must live right on and continue to have dealings with the rest of the world. And the things that concern

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This is the last of a series of nine articles on "Social Progress in Europe." the complete list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Some Features of the Old Régime (September).
Reaction and the Republican Revival (November).
Era of Social Experiment (December).
England and the Industrial Revolution (January).
The Great Era of English Reform (February).
Recent Social Conditions in the Romance Counties (March).
Germany and the Program of Socialism (April).
Social and Industrial Russia (May).

their life and thought cannot fail to be of interest to civilized peoples everywhere.

From this point of view it will be well to round out our sketch of social progress in European countries with a brief presentation of some of the significant facts regarding the advancement and the prospects of the Russians. The subject is an enormous one and the newspapers and magazines of the day, not to mention the many books all the time appearing from enterprising presses, have had so much to give us upon it within the past year that one almost despairs of trying to say anything new. Yet, sometimes the old facts are the most suggestive and valuable, if only they are put in some new relation. In the present case they are often especially interesting as bases of comparison with facts regarding other peoples which have been dealt with in this series.

Perhaps it will not be out of the way to call to mind the cardinal events and measures of the nineteenth century which have had something to do with determining the Russian conditions of today. The century opened with a man on the throne who prided himself on his liberal ideas, and it is a fair assumption that, barring the fact that since then there has been a whole century of preparation of the people, the outlook for free, even democratic, government in Russia was as bright in 1801 as it has been at any time in our own day. Alexander I, who was Tzar from 1801 to 1825, went far beyond any of his predecessors in the work of reform. He gave a constitution to the conquered province of Poland and seems to have contemplated one for the whole of Russia, relaxed the censorship of the press, enlarged toleration for dissenters in religion, laid the foundation for a scientific codification of the laws, and took steps in the direction of emancipating the serfs. Had it not happened that for some unaccountable reason Alexander, about the year 1818, turned suddenly about in his course and took up the policies of the Austrian reactionary, Metternich, Russia would probably have been liberalized by 1825 as much as she was destined to be in actual fact by 1900. It seems clear that Alexander's liberalism, which was shared for a time by many of his leading men of state, was a product of the French Revo-

THE TZAR WITH HIS WIFE AND DAUGHTERS

lution and of the mingling of the Russian soldiers and statesmen with those of western Europe in the Napoleonic period. Apparently the Tzar's borrowed convictions did not take hold very profoundly. It may be that his naturally autocratic disposition was finally allowed free sway as the result of plots against his life.

Nicholas I, brother of Alexander, succeeded to the throne in 1825. He was by nature an absolutist and had as his motto the three words "Aristocracy, Orthodoxy, and Nationality." Early in the reign there occurred a rather formidable revolt, prompted by generals who had imbibed liberal ideas while serving in the West, but the movement was mercilessly crushed and had only the effect of confirming the Tzar in his attitude of unbending autoc-

racy. Practically all of the tolerant measures of Alexander were revoked and the first noteworthy era of Russian liberalism was lost in a long period of untrammeled despotism. It was only with the Crimean War that Nicholas was brought

NICHOLAS I

to the point of defeat in his plans, and in 1855 he died brokenhearted, as some say, over the failure of his policy to create a power strong and irresistible enough to control the affairs of eastern Europe despite the hostility of the nations of the West.

In the Crimean War the Russian military administration broke down even more completely than it has in the present conflict with Japan. The people felt the disgrace then, as they do now, and were stirred to a larger interest in liberal government than they had ever had before. It must be said that in the first period of liberalism, in the reign of Alexander, the people as a whole exhibited small concern. They were ignorant and in a surprising measure indifferent. There were considerable numbers, of course, of whom this was not true, but the affirmation can be very safely made so far as the masses were concerned. Only after the Crimean War do we find the great body of the people moved in any such way as has been witnessed within the past few months of the Japanese War. In 1855 Alexander II, son of Nicholas I, became Tzar. More than anyone else he realized the need of reform, and happily he did not lack the will to go as far as he conceived to be safe in the way of innovation. There was opened, therefore, an era of liberalism which would never before have been possible, for never before had the people been in a position to make such intelligent demands for change, and certainly never before had they known a sovereign so acquainted with their needs and so sincerely devoted to their betterment. Censorship of the press was relaxed and, as one writer has put it, "a luxuriant crop of new periodicals sprang up, devoted to bringing into Russia the western literature, science, law, and political ideas." The judicial system was reformed, with the purpose of making it more just and efficient. Among other notable acts in this connection was the introduction of jury trial in criminal cases. Education, also, was overhauled and considerably extended. And at length came the greatest social advancement of all, *i. e.*, the emancipation of the serfs by the decree of February 19, 1861.

It is estimated that in 1861 there were in Russia about forty-seven million serfs, a little over half being on estates belonging to the crown and something like the same number being on estates owned by the great landed proprietors. Practically all were agricultural laborers. They were not slaves, for they could not be bought and sold at the absolute will of their masters; but they were "bound to the soil" and passed with it from one owner to another. They were not free to move from place to place and were hedged about with such restrictions that it was practically impossible for them ever to become economically independent. In the earlier Middle Ages serfdom of this type was the ordinary condition of the peasantry in all western and southern Europe, but

by the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries it had pretty largely given way before a status of freedom for even the humblest agricultural laborer and it survived only in the most out of the way places until the day of the French Revolution. With remarkable statesmanship Tzar Alexander perceived that the emancipation of Russia's host of unfree would not only be the greatest of blessings to the people immediately concerned, but would also mean in the end greatly increased resources and prosperity for the nation at large. Perhaps he foresaw how emancipation from industrial bondage would lead inevitably to demands for political privilege, perhaps he did not; but that such was to be the effect of the measure is a very patent fact now.

The decree of February 19, 1861, did more than merely set the serfs free. Alexander understood that this would not be enough—understood it considerably better, it would seem, than the people of the United States understood about the same time that it was not enough merely to liberate the negro from the ownership of his master. Accordingly the Tzar included in his decree a notable provision for the getting of a good start by the millions of men who were now given their liberty. The problem was not an easy one to deal with, for of course the serfs did not own land and so, when freed, must either continue as independent laborers or renters on the crown's or proprietors' lands, or drift to the towns in search of industrial employment. The solution was simplified by the fact that almost everywhere the serfs lived in little villages, each family having a cottage and plot of garden land about it, while the men spent most of their time working on the estate on which the village was situated. What Alexander did, therefore, in issuing his emancipation decree, was to arrange that each family should be given a little tract of ground individually, and that to the village as a community should be assigned a definite portion of the old estate, to be paid for in annual installments for a period of forty-nine years. The government stood ready to loan the villagers the money they needed to complete the transaction and the process went forward so rapidly that by the end of 1863

M. POBIEDONOSTSEFF. HEAD OF THE RUSSIAN CHURCH

over forty million serfs had gained their liberty. The communal villages thus perpetuated by the terms of the emancipation became the very important local units known commonly as *mirs*. They were entrusted with the management and occasional redistribution of the common lands and were empowered to manage their own systems of police and justice. Likewise they were made responsible for the taxes and for the military quotas levied upon them. In these petty communistic organizations, therefore, the Russian people first achieved any appreciable quantity of self-government, and from that day to this the grand aim of the very considerable party of Russian state socialists has been to extend the system of the mir to the empire as a whole. For a nation whose central government is so autocratic, Russia pre-

sents the spectacle of very unusual liberty in local affairs.

In 1862 the *zemstvos,* of which we have heard a great deal in recent weeks, were

ALEXANDER III

organized, with a view to establishing self-government on a larger scale. These zemstvos were district and provincial councils, elected in general by the landed proprietors, the inhabitants of the cities, and the peasants. They were not given large powers, but they contained the possibilities of popular activity which recent months have seen abundantly realized.

The second important period of Russian liberalism was vastly more far-reaching in its effects than had been the first. Many of the great reforms of Alexander II, though assailed by reactionists, have never been subverted as were those of his uncle. The emancipation of the serfs, the reorganization of justice, and the establishment of local self-government stand as great landmarks in Russian history—as notable for the era of half a century ago as the inauguration of a national representative system would be for our own time. The changes wrought were of a substantial sort and put Russia on a new plane from which the ascent to constitutional, and even democratic, government can never be so difficult as it looked to be from the old level.

Of course Alexander's measures fell far short of satisfying the radical elements of the people. During the era of liberalism a new "Liberal" party had grown up, with demands for complete freedom of the press, the right of *habeas corpus,* a ministry responsible to the people, and a national parliament elected by the people. Along with the men whose program was even as moderate as this there had come forward others who would be content with aiming at nothing less than the utter destruction of every existing institution and the setting up of an entirely new system of society and government. Some of these were socialists; others were so extreme as to be classed with the nihilists. The most famous of the leaders of the latter much-feared group of reformers was Bakunin. As showing the extremes to which these people went the following appeal from Bakunin to his coagitators is of interest:

Take heed that no ark be allowed to rescue any atom of this old world, which we consecrate to destruction. When you have freed your minds from the fear of God and from that childish respect for the fiction of right, then all the remaining chains which bind you, and which are called science, civilization, property, marriage, morality, and justice will snap asunder like threads. Let your own happiness be your only law.

This, of course, sets forth an ideal of anarchy, nihilism, and pretty much everything else that is subversive of the modern system of society. The very illogical position which men of Bakunin's stripe had come to occupy was that a thing was necessarily bad because it existed. Everything that was old was to be swept away and a new order—precisely *what* was never made clear—was to be substituted.

It was perhaps natural that in a country where there was indeed so much that needed to be changed the champions of reform should sometimes lose their senses in wild and indiscriminate denunciation of all existing institutions; but, however natural, it has clearly been a great misfortune to the cause of Russian liberalism that men have thus been ready to go to such extremes. The vehemence and the threats of the nihilist afford abundant excuse for rigor and reaction on the part of the governing authorities, and indeed it was precisely this tendency of the reforming party to overleap itself that caused a reversal, or at least a suspension, of Alexander II's broadminded policy and so brought to an end the greatest period of liberalism that Russia has ever known. The reaction really began with the revolt and attempted revolution of Lithuania in 1863, though it was not for some years more that it became marked. In 1866, and again in 1867, attempt was made to assassinate the Tzar, and Alexander reluctantly came to the conclusion that his generous government was not appreciated and that there was no need to continue it. The large reforms which he had instituted were not revoked, but in smaller matters, such as the freedom of the press, there was a return to about the condition of things which prevailed when Alexander had mounted the throne in 1855. Thenceforth the agitation for liberal government was compelled to spend itself in plots and conspiracies which from that day to this have seemed to keep official Russia in a more or less perpetual state of terror without really accomplishing any very decidedly beneficent results.

In the spring of the year 1881 Alexander, called the "Tzar Liberator," was assassinated, the crime being simply the culmination of a long series of murders or attempted murders by the nihilists during the preceding years, especially since 1878. Alexander's son, who succeeded as Alexander III, absolutely refused to consider any plans for free government and set for himself the arduous task of avenging the death of his father by stamping out nihilism and all kindred movements. On the very day (March 13) on which the elder Alexander had been slain he had publicly proclaimed a plan for a representative national assembly to be elected by the assemblies of nobles, the zemstvos, and the municipalities. The basis of constitutional government which thus seemed on the point of being laid was rendered impossible by the foolish, not to say criminal, assassination. These were indications that after passing through a period of reaction against his earlier liberalism Alexander was again about to be brought by the exigencies of his time to a place where he would be willing to resume the work he had left off in 1864. And it is not too much to suppose that, had the Tzar been allowed to live, Russia, in a very short time, might have had a constitution and a fairly liberal government, especially as leading officers of state, like the St. Petersburg governor Melikov, were urging steps in this direction as a means of cutting the ground out from under the nihilist agitation. All this was lost, however, by the rashness of the conspirators. Alexander III promptly revoked the proclamation of his father and instituted a régime of rigorous rule which was much like that of his autocratic grandfather, Nicholas I. Thousands of liberals were exiled to Siberia and the nihilists were hunted down and practically exterminated. So thoroughly was the agitation for free government repressed that it has never been revived in anything like its former vigor until during the Japanese war emergencies of the past year. Alexander III died in 1894 and was succeeded by the present Tzar, Nicholas II, under whom there has been no material change of policy—at least until recent months when certain innovations have been made whose ultimate results and effectiveness it is yet too early to foresee.

In any consideration of social condi-

tions among the Russians of today one must give his attention chiefly to the agricultural elements of the population. Russia is not a country of cities, with a high proportion of urban population, as is France, Germany, England, and even the United States. Of the 140,000,000 people ruled by the Tzar fully eighty-eight

SERGIUS DE WITTE
Leading Russian Statesman.

per cent are agriculturists, living as a rule not in isolated farmhouses, as in our own country, but in village groups, or mirs. The emancipation of the serfs in 1861 and the years following converted thousands of men who formerly had been unfree laborers into independent landowners and proprietors, on however small a scale. Obviously the tendency of the measure was greatly to increase the number of farms and to break down the monopoly of land-holding hitherto enjoyed by the state and the nobility. Nevertheless one has but to glance at the records of land-holding in Russia today to be impressed with the vast extent to which the large estate system still prevails. Even yet the state owns more land than all private individuals in Russia together. Somewhat over 86,000 square miles are possessed by the Russian peasantry individually, in little tracts averaging about fifteen acres each. About 400,000 square miles are owned by the mirs as common property. The holdings of the nobles are estimated at 300,000 square miles. In the most thickly populated and fertile section, that known as the black earth region, between Moscow and the Black Sea, the estates of the nobles and rich merchants vary between 500 and 1,500 acres; on the steppes, between 2,500 and 5,000 acres, and in the north, where there is a great deal of waste land, from 12,000 to 25,000 acres.

It is to be noted that outside the black earth zone the soil is not sufficiently fertile to render agriculture really profitable. By dint of much frugality and hard labor the peasant may contrive to make a fairly comfortable living for himself and his family, but there is almost no chance for the accumulation of any considerable wealth, and it is the rule rather than the exception for the peasants to be in the condition which in America would be plainly designated as poverty. The black earth belt is covered with a vegetable mould ranging from ten to forty inches in depth and hence is fertile enough to favor the most profitable kinds of agriculture. But unfortunately the region contains almost no timber, and is subject to such prolonged droughts that frequently the crops are an almost total failure. The staple agricultural products of Russia are rye, oats, wheat, barley, millet, maize, potatoes, peas, lentils, hemp, and flax. Rye, and not wheat, is the staff of life for the Russian peasant. Even in the great wheat raising districts rye only is commonly eaten by the people, and thousands of them consider themselves fortunate to get even that.

"No country in the world," says a recent first hand observer, "is as backward in its agricultural methods as Russia. There is a slothfulness in the adoption of

modern improvements that is nothing short of criminal. The government insists that it is not responsible; that the conservatism, the pig-headedness, of the peasants is the real cause. As a matter of fact, the government is far more to blame than the man. The taxes which the latter has to pay are very heavy; to meet them in the year of bad crops he has to borrow money at an exorbitant rate of interest; and it must be confessed that he is rather sadly lacking in initiative—all of which tend to compel him to cling to the methods which his fathers for generations have followed. These conditions also require him to hire himself out to the owners of large estates on terms which frequently are little short of serfdom. In vast areas a day's wages do not amount to more than sixteen cents with food, or twenty-five cents without it. Few landholders can afford to give actual cash, so that the peasants receive their pay in kind. The sole advantage of this system is that, however bad the harvest may be, the peasants have a chance of getting something to live on during the winter. The antiquated methods are often responsible for the poor crop—a crop so poor indeed that sometimes there is a profit of not more than fifteen cents on an acre of wheat! Altogether it must be said that the conditions of living which surround fully four-fifths of the Russian peasantry are such as to involve, at certain seasons of the year at least, real suffering and privation. Dwellings are small, unsanitary, and meanly furnished; clothing is high in price and poor in quality; food is scarce and of the coarsest and most unpalatable varieties; while the facilities for mental improvement and social diversion are almost wholly lacking. The life of the peasant tends to be hard, practical, and narrow, with little chance for escape from the blighting weight of ignorance, superstition, and poverty.

From the point of view of education Russia presents an extreme variety of conditions. There are parts of the empire, as Courland, Esthonia, and Finland in which nearly every one can read and write. There are other parts, such as Archangel, Astrakan, and Bessarabia, in which the proportion of the population that can read and write is estimated at not over two per cent. It is only within the last forty years that the Russian government has given much practical attention to the matter of popular education. So far as the mere providing of school accommodations is concerned, a reasonable amount of progress has been made in this time, even though it be true that instruction is not yet to be had by more than one-third of the 13,000,000 children of school age in the empire. The latest official statistics show that there are 84,544 public schools in the empire, with a teaching force of 172,000, and costing more that $25,000,000 annually. It has been thought in many quarters, notably by the socialists, that the government purposely retards the spread of education because it thinks that the moment the masses find themselves the autocracy will be overthrown. It is impossible to determine what measure of truth there is in the accusation, but we at least have the word of Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky, as minister

A VILLAGE SCHOOL

of the interior, that when the present war shall end the government expects to set to work energetically to provide a broader system of education for the people. And the Tzar himself is quoted as saying:

"Experience has shown such important defects in our educational system that I believe it is time to correct them." However ignorant the peasants of today may be it certainly cannot be said that they are at all indifferent to education. On the other hand its value is deeply appreciated and the parents are rare who will not undergo any hardship in order that their offspring may learn to read and write. The door of opportunity needs only to be opened to be entered by thousands who have hitherto been beyond its reach.

PEASANT'S COTTAGE

Just at present, of course, the question of most immediate interest in Russia is as to the possibility of broadening the government and introducing into it an element of popular control. Peoples of democratic countries have naturally been strongly disposed in recent weeks to sympathize with the demand which has been made for constitutional, representative government. Anglo-Saxon peoples are prone to assume that government of this kind, being proved best for them, is necessarily best for all peoples everywhere. One does not need to be a profound student of politics, however, to see that at best this principle can be true only with one very important qualification, *i. e.*, that there shall be a very large measure of political training and practical experience in the difficult art of self-government. It is at least a serious question whether Russia is yet ready for democracy on a national scale. That the present autocratic system ought by all means to be replaced by constitutional rule will be at once admitted by nearly every unprejudiced person. But it is the opinion of many competent observers that, as the minister of the interior has recently said, "Before the Emperor can permit the people to participate in the control of national affairs, they must be better educated, possess wider knowledge of the obligations as well as the advantages of suffrage; in short, demonstrate greater capacity for it." The basis for this judgment is the wide-spread indifference of the peasants to the opportunities which they have for self-government through the zemstvos. Practically all Russian officials of state insist that the ultimate drift of the government's policy is toward limited monarchy, a responsible ministry, a written constitution, and the dominance of a popularly elected parliament. But it is contended that these things can come only in time and with the growth of education and better economic conditions among the people. Just what the process will be—

A RURAL COURT

how much political and social development will interplay as cause and effect—no one would at present undertake with any assurance to predict.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

I. The importance of the Russian people.
II. Russia under Alexander I (1801-1825).
  1. Reforms in the early part of the reign.
  2. Alexander's later reaction.
III. The reign of Nicholas I (1825-1855).
  1. Revolt of the Generals.
  2. The rule of autocracy.
  3. The humiliation of the Crimean War.

IV. Tzar Alexander II (1855-1881).
  1. Second era of liberalism.
  2. 1861—the emancipation of the serfs.
    a. Numbers and condition of the serfs.
    b. Methods of emancipation.
    c. The mirs.
  3. The organization of the zemstvos.
  4. Rise of the Liberal Party.
  5. The nihilists—Bakunin.
  6. Alexander II's reaction.
  7. 1881—assassination of Alexander.

V. Reign of Alexander III (1881-1894).
  1. Strong absolutist rule.

VI. Some conditions under Nicholas II (1894-1905).
  1. The Russian agricultural population.
    a. Eighty-eight per cent of the people agricultural.
    b. Present conditions of land-holding.
    c. Backwardness of agricultural methods.
  2. Education.
    a. Greatly varied rate of illiteracy.
    b. Attitude of the government toward education.
  3. The question of change in government.
    a. Prerequisites of self-government.
    b. Russia's preparedness for popular rule.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What change may be noted in the attitude of the western peoples toward Russian subjects during the last half century? 2. Enumerate the Russian Tzars during the nineteenth century, with dates. 3. What were the principal reforms of Alexander I? 4. What was the attitude of Nicholas I toward liberalism? 5. What were some of the earlier evidences of Alexander II's liberalism? 6. When were the Russian serfs emancipated? 7. What is meant by a "serf?" 8. What provision was made for the future of the serfs liberated? 9. What is a "mir?" 10. What are the "zemstvos;" when were they organized? 11. Name a noted nihilist of Alexander II's time. 12. Account for Alexander II's change of policy about 1864. 13. Who was Alexander II's successor and what was his attitude toward liberalism? 14. When did the reign of the present Tzar begin? 15. What proportion of Russia's population is agricultural? 16. What are some difficulties in the way of Russian farming? 17. To what extent are the Russians an uneducated people? 18. Why is it asserted that Russia is not ready for self-government?

SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What is the area of Russia in Europe? 2. What is the established church of Russia? 3. What was the leading military event of the Crimean War? 4. How many universities are there in Russia?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

The available literature on Russia and Russian affairs, in both book and periodical form, is so extensive as to be almost appalling to the student or reader. The following are a few of the better books which may be consulted with profit: Palmer, "Russian Life in Town and Country;" Wolf von Schierbrand, "Russia—Her Strength and Weakness;" Edmund Noble, "The Russian Revolt;" *ibid.*, "Russia and the Russians;" Paul Milyoukov, "Russian Civilization: its Past and Present;" Maxime Kovalevsky, "Russian Political Institutions;" Wirt Gerrare, "Greater Russia;" Beveridge, "The Russian Advance;" Stepniak, "The Russian Peasantry;" D. Wallace Mackenzie, "Russia;" Herbert M. Thompson, "Russian Politics;" and Geoffrey Drage, "Russian Affairs." Of all these works the last mentioned is in many ways the best and most servicable.

Magazine articles on Russia are so numerous that only a few especially helpful ones need here be referred to. These are: J. C. O'Laughlin, "Labor Conditions in Russia," in *The World's Work*, June, 1904; Professor Simkovitch, "Russian Autocracy," in *International Quarterly*, July, 1904; J. Novico. "The Russian People," in *International Monthly*, April, 1901; H. P. Judson, "Russian Liberalism," in *The World Today*, March, 1905; and George Kennan, "The Social and Political Conditions of Russia," in *Outlook*, January 30, 1904.

"Saxon and Slav," a series of articles presenting a comparative study of the genius of Anglo-Saxon and Russian, by Frederic Austin Ogg, appeared in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Sept., 1902, to May, 1903, inclusive. "A Reading Journey Through Russia" by a number of authorities appeared in the same issues of this magazine.

Berlin Celebrities

By Otto Heller, Ph. D.

Professor in Washington University, St. Louis.

THE representative men of a great metropolis furnish a favorite object for the legitimate curiosity of the visitor. Since it is in the nature of things that the most prominent men and women in a community are also the most occupied, the stranger, be he never so well-versed in the ways of foreign society, would better resign the hope of "interviewing" them for his own and his countrymen's edification. It should be remembered that to be famous in Berlin means, as a rule, to be a world celebrity. The Reichshauptstadt* contains in its diplomatic, scientific, artistic, and literary circles an astounding number of stars of the first magnitude, for the simple reason that it is the seat of so many governmental and social activities of the highest order. For any one, however, who is satisfied with a passing glimpse of the lions, it is not difficult to be put on their track. He need not even question persons of different circles; any true child of Berlin can supply him with the full catalogue of names, habits, haunts, etc. The visitor will observe with gratification that the Germans' hero-worship is marked by a broad catholicity of spirit and is not limited to any one form of distinction, as for instance, wealth. Wealth, indeed, is about the last achievement in Germany to dazzle the people and excite them to any extraordinary degree of curiosity, From my place on the platform of a street-car or the upper deck of an omnibus I have frequently had pointed out to me some coryphée of the intellectual world. A plain son of the people, maybe the conductor or driver of the vehicle, at once detecting me by my speech and manner to be a stranger in Berlin, would say abruptly, with some show of excitement: "There goes Professor Mommsen," or, "That wee little man at the restaurant window is 'Exzellenz Menzel';" again—"Do you know the smooth-faced, slender, towheaded young man? That's Hauptmann;" and then the informant would launch forth into a pointed commentary on

* "The capital of the nation."

This is the last of a series of nine articles entitled "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany." The complete list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

The Belgium of Charles the Bold and Philip II, by Clare de Graffenried (September).
Twentieth Century Belgium, by Clare de Graffenried (October).
Hanover, Hildesheim, Brunswick, by Clara M. Stearns (November).
Munich: The City on the Isar, by N. Hudson Moore (December).
Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck, by Wolf von Schierbrand (January).
Town and Country Byways, by Clara M. Stearns (February).
Weimar, the Athens of Germany, by Robert W. Deering (March).
Berlin I, by Otto Heller (April).
Berlin Celebrities, by Otto Heller (May).

the fame and merits of the public person in question. But I do not remember a single instance of my attention being called to the terrestrial body of any mere millionaire. Surely not because in Berlin there is a lack of the commodity; about 1,500 of its inhabitants show by their annual confession before the tax collector that the species is well represented. Yet, although Germany is by no means without her share of our contemporary materialism, it is strikingly manifest on every side that wealth makes less of an appeal to the imagination of her masses than is elsewhere the case.

As already hinted, the capital city of the German Empire has an ample representation of the leonine tribe. Nevertheless the American will wonder at the frequency of the information, in reply to his inquiries about this celebrity and that whom he expected to find: "Why, he doesn't live in Berlin." It will not take him long to discover that the centralizing process in Germany has not yet been carried to anything like the same lengths as in England, and, to make the contrast even more striking, in France, where somehow all the national interests gravitate to the capital as to the cerebral organ of the country's nervous system. So, for example, I have dwelt in my first article with some emphasis upon the world-wide significance of the educational institutions of Berlin, notably its university which is the largest graduate school in the world. On its staff of half a thousand instructors there is hardly one who has not won recognition as a promoter of scholarship. Yet the University of Berlin may not be called the best in Germany except in the sense that it has the largest faculties, and consequently may boast the greatest aggregation of celebrities. The professors in the various departments of study at Berlin are not necessarily greater or more famous men than the professors in other German universities. University professorships, on the whole, are equal in the estimation of the academic world, regardless of what university they belong to. To illustrate this fact, which is certainly different from the condition in our own country, at the International Congress of Arts and Science held in St. Louis, Sept. 19-23, 1904, there were about sixty German professors called thither to represent their various branches of learning. Of these not more than one-fifth came from Berlin, although the endeavor had been in each case to secure the undisputed leader in each subject.

Hardly two Americans would agree as to which of the "representative men" of the capital they would most care to meet. But no foreigner will be content to leave Berlin without having had a good stare at the official head of the German nation, Emperor William II. To satisfy this perfectly legitimate curiosity is not a difficult matter, for when sojourning in the capital, the Emperor may be seen every day, driving, usually in company with the Empress, or on horseback, surrounded by officers in brilliant uniforms, in the Tiergarten. Not seldom he dismounts and unattended by any police escort, walks with a characteristically brisk, energetic gait along the shady paths of that beautiful park. They tell of some characteristic occurrences in connection with these rambles. An unwritten law demands that in the Emperor's presence each male head be uncovered. Yet many radicals deny him this visible tribute of fealty. In the Tiergarten, one day, Emperor and Empress in their walk met a man of the working class who walked past them without saluting. The Emperor, calling after him, asked the man, "Don't you know who I am?" "Yes," said the man, "you are the Emperor." "And this lady?" "Is the Empress." "Very well," said William, "since it seems incompatible with your principles to remove your cap before your emperor, perhaps you will take it off to this lady."

On these occasions it is manifest that William II is not exactly popular with his people, for his sud-

den appearance in their midst never creates any spontaneous outburst of cordial feeling such as used regularly to greet his father and grandfather. One

EMPEROR WILLIAM II

should bear in mind, however, lest the present Emperor be judged harshly, that the filial worship of the German people came to William I quite late, mainly as the fruit won in two triumphant wars, whereas earlier in life he had been the object of deep popular detestation owing to the measures he enforced to quell the riot of 1848, measures so summary that they earned him the hateful sobriquet "der Kartätschenprinz" (Prince Grape-Shot). His grandson, lacking beyond a doubt the mellow personality, particularly the benevolence of manner that so endeared the "gray old king" to his subjects, has none the less been steadily gaining ground in their goodwill. And in fact no intelligent person can deny his admiration to some of the outstanding traits of Emperor William's character. Foremost among these is a truly kingly sense of responsibility. It was his predecessor, Frederick the Great, who denominated the King of Prussia the first servant of the state. Maybe his living successor would prefer to substitute for *servant* a less humble name, yet in effect his conduct in office carries out the notion of service imposed by sovereignty. Emperor William puts forth all his insight and energy into the task of government. His energy no man of just sense will want to dispute. A ruler over sixty millions of human beings, the Emperor is himself the most indefatigable worker in a nation of toilers. Faithful to the traditions of his house, he has always believed in the efficacy of the gospel of labor.

People who with democratic scorn sometimes look upon royal office as the acme of sinecure should stop to think how much time and strength was required of the young prince to fit himself for the demands of his station. At the threshold of young manhood he had attained a perfect mastery of several living languages, (at court functions he and the Empress converse with the representatives of foreign powers in the native lan-

EMPRESS OF GERMANY

guage of each), was perfectly familiar with ancient and modern history, and was proficient in several and well-grounded in all branches of exact and applied science. This is to name only a small number of his many accomplishments. William II is, besides, a skilled musician and clever draughtsman and painter; and the breadth of his culture is still further indicated by his well-meaning, if not markedly successful, efforts in a literary and dramatic direction. Though by no means aligning himself on the side of out and out "modernism," the Emperor is keenly sensitive to every stir in the intellectual atmosphere of his time. Moreover his interests are not artificially bound in, as are those of many other well-meaning patriots, by the confines of state or country. On the contrary, they reach out, as befits his elevated station, to all parts of the globe. Whether it be a question of naval architecture or a freshly discovered old Babylonian code, of an international embroilment in the Far East, of a new electrical discovery, or a novel use of photography, with equal zest the Emperor applies himself to the study of each as it arises. Yet despite such wide range and variety of scientific and artistic interests as has been merely hinted, it remains to state that by natural proclivity he is not so much a scholar as a statesman and, above and beyond all things, a soldier. The primacy of the military traits in this composite character has never been questioned. Having said this much of the strenuosity of William II we may well add a word about his wisdom. He is not fashioned on what might be termed a judicial pattern. His temper, as all the world knows, is not constructed on the principles of the well-tempered clavichord. Characteristically enough, William II at the age of forty-six is still commonly referred to as the "young" Emperor, in testimony of his vigorous and pushing nature, which, because of its impulsiveness, would have unfailingly led him and his nation into disaster, were the Emperor not, at the core, well-balanced and self-disciplined.

It will be remembered how, at the time of his accession to the throne, the press of France, England, and the United States delighted in picturing the then actually youthful war-lord as a swashbuckling fire-eater, and how it was unanimously predicted that his first act would be to set fire at last to the surcharged powder magazine of the world's politics. The dire prophecies have miscarried. Despite an occasional ebullition of his intense sentiment, a fitful act or an unguarded utterance emanating from bluff, sometimes misled, honesty, William has at no time, in the course of nearly twenty years on the throne, brought his people to the verge of a war. Better than that, he has well-nigh allayed the fears of his most vehement critics at home and abroad, and convinced the most honest among them that he is bent single-mindedly on the preservation of peace. The relatively few who come under the amiable spell of William's personal magnetism on semi-informal occasions* or through frequent social and official intercourse are said to feel a tender affection for their monarch. It is true, as has been already hinted, that this feeling is not shared by his people at large; but an overwhelming majority of them are nevertheless in grateful accord with him. His views on weighty questions are received by them with respectful attention and seriously commented upon.

Americans, accustomed to an almost insolent exploitation of the private life of public men, and wanting therefore to know more about the Emperor's private life, will find little food for curiosity in the columns of German newspapers. It is not that the daily doings of the Emperor and his habits are carefully hidden from the public gaze. The fact is, there is not much to tell. He leads, on the whole, a simple,

*Such as the "smokers" where the Emperor gathers about him with most informal sociability congenial spirits from widely divergent walks of life.

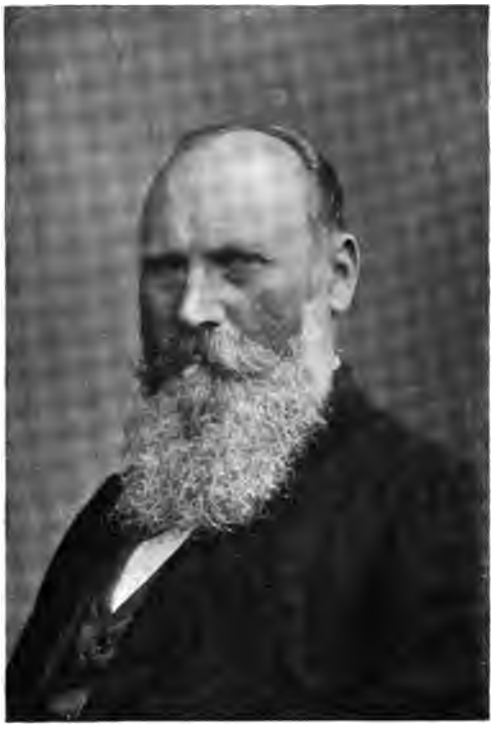
CHANCELLOR VON BUELOW

at any rate a temperate, life. Like all very active men he is an early riser. Unlike some of them, he is not adverse to the pleasures of the table, and to other creature comforts and even luxuries—he is of too sociable a nature for that. By no means an athlete in build, he is expert in several games of bodily strength and skill, particularly tennis. Being a passionate sportsman, he freely indulges his fondness for riding, shooting, and sailing, which pleasurable pursuits take him abroad so frequently that the ever-ready mother-wit of the Berliners has dubbed him "der Reisekaiser" (the traveling emperor). His frequent absences from Germany should, however, not be understood as being periods of complete relaxation. For no matter how brief or how long his absence, he keeps in uninterrupted touch with the affairs of state, having ever close at hand an efficacious machinery for the expediting of urgent business.

With respect to his family life, ungrudging praise is bestowed on William II by all, regardless of political belief, for the example he sets his people as a husband and father. This is not simply to state that the names of William II and Augusta Victoria have never been sullied by scandal. Their domestic virtues have also a positive ring. At no time are Emperor and Empress too busy to superintend personally even the details of their children's bringing-up. The Emperor takes a strong patriarchal interest in whatever concerns his numerous family—six boys ranging in age from twenty-three to fifteen, and the little Princess Victoria Louise, now thirteen years old—and he devotes far more attention to them than our own busy "magnates" usually feel that they can "afford." As for the last source of the Emperor's unblemished conduct of life and the motive power behind the stern exercise of his authority over all members of the royal household, they are identical. By foreigners and also by radicals in his own country (whose freedom of speech the loudness and persistency of their cavillings prove less closely muzzled than is imagined in this country) the Emperor is not seldom held up to scorn. They arraign him as a shifty politician clever enough to cloak liberalism with the outward semblance of piety. A fairer view based on an unbiassed consideration of the Emperor's course of life—be it remembered that perhaps no person in the world is more fully exposed to the search-light of publicity—pays him the honor of implicit belief in the sincerity of his religious professions. Whatever may be rightfully urged against his undeniable and ever present "mental squint" which makes him such a strange, to Americans almost unintelligible, blend of modernism and medievalism, the chief traits of William II are, after all, his conscientiousness, alertness, industry, temperance, and patriotism, and by setting a noble example he has stamped these qualities indelibly on the moral at-

titude of the present generation of Germans.

It was Bismarck who predicted that William II when he should come to the throne would act as his own chancellor. In one sense his prediction has come true, in that the Emperor keeps a firm personal grip on the machinery of state. Yet to think that Caprivi, Hohenlohe, and Bülow have been but callow puppets in the hands of their royal master would be a fatuous error of judgment. In all probability Count Bernhard von Bülow, who at present holds the highest office in the gift of the Emperor, wields a determining influence on the latter by wisely directing into the safest paths his somewhat erratic energy. At any rate, the exercise of such a power by the older man over the younger would seem creditable to those who have had opportunity to watch Count von Bülow taking part in a Reichstag debate. With the appearance and aplomb of a perfect man of the world, an easy manner of speech which seems the last



WILHELM WALDEYER, PRIVY COUNCILLOR

remove both from the hollow or rhetorical and the abstrusely erudite, he combines wide mastery of most political and economic subjects that affect the welfare of Germany, rare clearness and elegance of expression, ready wit—fondly indulged at the expense of opponents—and the invaluable gift of good-nature which does not really give way even under provocation. It is by such a sum of grateful traits that he frequently "scores" against expert parliamentarians on the left *(i. e.,* "opposition") side of the house, and is able to carry his point without the clash and rancor that inevitably preceded and followed every home political victory of grim old Bismarck. Since Count Bülow combines with his many intellectual graces the prestige of lineage and wealth, his mansion in the Wilhelm Strasse is, in a sense, the official center and focus of high life in the capital; the more so as the Emperor spends only a small part of his time in Berlin, owing to his disaffection with the inhabitants, and the ac-

PROFESSOR ADOLF HARNACK

tual seat of his court is the "New Palace" at Potsdam.

The habitués of the Count and Countess Bülow's home, however, are not recruited

PROFESSOR FRIEDRICH PAULSEN

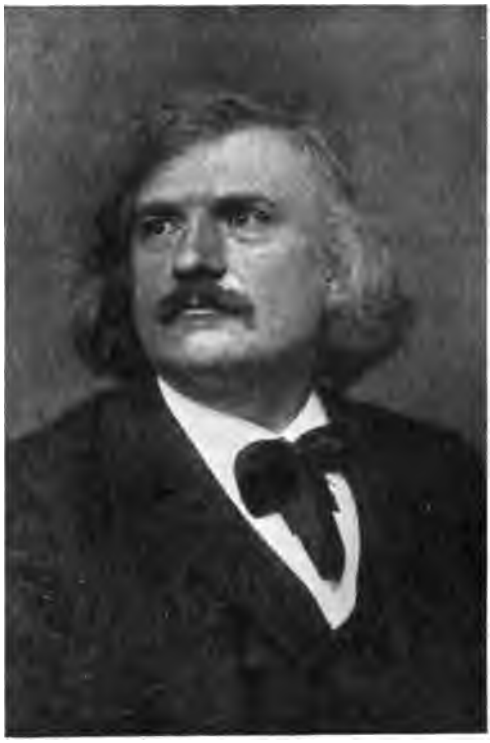
solely from the ranks of the aristocracy of birth and office, for both the Count and the Countess (who by the way is an Italian) are people of keen and highly cultivated taste in music, art, and letters. The Chancellor when a young man was a friend and familiar companion of Richard Wagner, and is to this day an enthusiastic Wagnerite; he is said also to be an admirable performer on the piano. With musicians, therefore, and also with men and women of letters, with a number of whom he is on terms of close intimacy, Count Bülow's house is very popular; so, likewise, with many members of the Diet, but naturally not with all of them. I doubt if ever that gnarly old intransigent, Bebel, the veteran leader of the Socialists, could be induced to doff the political armor for even a passing social amity with so agreeable an enemy.

August Bebel is unquestionably the most interesting personage in the Reichstag. For years he has been the mainstay and controlling force of the Socialist party whose polling strength now renders it, numerically, the most powerful in the Empire. He has experienced all the vicissitudes of so long a career and the special hardships incumbent upon the chosen head of a hated, at times persecuted, social-political creed. With many people, even today and in this free country, socialism is such a bugbear that the disciples who profess it, in particular its public apostles, partake in person of the odium that rests on the doctrine. But while the type of socialist that lives in the popular mind is certainly not wholly extinct, the men of significance within this tremendous movement do not answer either in appearance or in character to that conception. So Bebel* himself, now the patriarch of his party, looks and lives for all the world like the much-abused "bourgeois" who constitutes the socialist's pet aversion. The truly telling feature of the present-day phase of socialism is just this, that it takes its leaders only in small part from the "fourth estate;" more and more they come from the upper set, even from among the nobility are they recruited, and it is averred, not without a show of truth, that even the officers-corps is not wholly free from the taint of socialism. This novel situation accounts, on the one hand, for the widening, rising influence of socialism; on the other hand it also serves to explain its comparative calmness and restraint. The term "Kathedersozialisten" is applied strictly to political economists who promulgate or defend socialistic theories *excathedra*, from university chairs. To hear one of these academic socialists the stranger need only avail himself of the daily opportunity offered in the lecture-halls of the University. It is not realized by many foreigners in what a liberal, or we should say lax, way admission to university lectures is regu-

*For a picture of August Bebel see "Germany and the Program of Socialism" in the April CHAUTAUQUAN.

lated. Theoretically, no one who is not "inscribed" for a whole semester may attend any of the lectures, unless it be through special favor of the lecturer. Yet in point of fact you may spend as many hours as you please listening to celebrities like Adolf Harnack, Adolf Wagner, Ulrich von Wilamowitz-Möllendorf, Otto Pfleiderer, Erich Schmidt, Wilhelm Waldeyer, Friedrich Paulsen, and a few years ago Hermann Helmholtz, Theodor Mommsen, Ernst Curtius, Wilhelm Grimm, Rudolf Virchow, Heinrich von Treitschke, Leopold von Ranke, Heinrich von Sybel could have been included in such a list. It is unfortunate, to be sure, that the visitor who is unwilling to forego the rare privilege of being in the living presence of such great personalities, has to "sponge" on the University (they call it *Kolleg schinden* in German) in this fashion. Gladly would he pay a generous tax for permission to do so, but there is no provision made for that in the tuition system. The number of women in the audience is surprisingly large, an index, by the way, of the participation of women in the higher intellectual activities of the nation. Should any reader of THE CHAUTAUQUAN manage to quiet her conscience and bring herself to "sponge" at a lecture or two while in Berlin, she will thank me for warning her of an unwritten law that in the University women appear in severely plain dress, and that to keep on one's headgear is regarded as a rudeness betokening the unregenerate barbarian.

The type of German professor made familiar through the "Fliegende Blätter" will not be easily detected among the living lights of the learned world. The discrepancy may perhaps be explained on the theory that the professor has shown himself more amenable to the law of evolution than have the "Fliegende Blätter." An intense and indefatigable worker the German scholar has remained, yet he is not by any means as world-estranged, absent-minded and *gauche* as the funny papers would make him out. The fact is, the high social eminence in which a professorship places a man in Germany compels him amply to cultivate and exercise his social tact. Professor Erich Schmidt, to name a single example,



JOSEPH KOHLER, JURIST

though even now not much past fifty, has for more than thirty years known how to combine in a fascinating manner the leadership in his specialty, literary history, with the art of enjoying all the good things of life, material as well as spiritual. At fifty-three still one of the handsomest men in a city famous for the good looks of its male inhabitants, he is a great favorite in society, especially in those circles which are *tonangebend, i. e.,* which set the fashion, in the German capital. The high prestige of these leading families is due in most cases to a perfect combination of wealth, breeding, and intellectual distinction. If one is fortunate enough to obtain the entrée to one of these houses of the elect, he will find it to be in most instances the common meeting ground

of scholars, artists, and musicians, although the last two named classes, more particularly artists, show here as everywhere else in the world, a marked clannishness, and prefer to band together in groups that are held together by party allegiance; in other words, the conflict between the theories which divide the art world affects also the personal relations of the artists. A few more words on this subject will serve to indicate the fierceness of the conflict. On the one side are ranged the members of the recognized schools, aiming in their work to keep alive the traditions of a glorious past. Their art practice being in harmony with the views prevailing "above," these men almost exclusively are chosen to fill lucrative and influential posts such as directorships of museums and art schools. Anton von Werner, the semi-official head of this older, conservative class of artists, is the *bête noire* of the more advanced and, in a worldly sense, less prosperous "secessionists." They hold him personally responsible for the set-backs dealt them by the official classes, whose attitude towards the "new art" reflects the undisguised antipathy of His Majesty himself. For the Emperor is notoriously averse to any innovation in the realm of art and letters, or at least to any radical departure from older standards. Notwithstanding the imperial disapproval, the "Youngsters" have rapidly forged ahead and have now, certainly, some very brilliant achievements to their credit. Recently a story has been circulated which if true would portend a softening of the imperial heart toward the disciples of the "new art." They say that the Emperor on viewing an exhibition of the new three color photography was struck with the resemblance these pictures bear to the works of the impressionists and that he thereupon remarked to his adjutant: "Sollten die Kerls am Ende doch recht haben?" (Is it barely possible that those chaps are right, after all?)

Neither of the camps into which the art-world of Berlin is divided may claim wholly for its own the one man whom with one accord all proclaim the *facile princeps* among modern painters. That man was Adolf Menzel, who died early this year at the age of ninety. Thousands of Americans have recently stood in rapt admiration before two of his famous canvasses, the huge one entitled "The Forge" and a much smaller one representing a scene of the memorable year 1870, the departure of William I to join the army.* These and a considerable number of equally ambitious works dealing for the most part with historical subjects, were produced a long while ago (the "Round Table of Frederick the Great," in 1850, and two years later the inimitable "Evening Concert of Frederick the Great"); yet Menzel wielded his rare skill up to the very end. In appearance he was a wizened, shriveled little man, rather less than five feet tall (not much shorter, for the matter of that, than the "brainiest" man of Germany, Theodor Mommsen, who died about a year before him). Among the many honors showered upon Menzel during the later period of his life was promotion to the rank of hereditary nobility and the signal distinction of the title "Excellency" conferred upon him by the Emperor. Yet he was never cut out for a courtier. Honest and candid to a fault, bluntly outspoken on every question involving esthetic principles, he was strongly addicted to moods and habits. Like many of Germany's great men he led a life of the utmost simplicity in his later years, certainly from choice, not necessity. Had his disposition been in the least mercenary, he could without difficulty have amassed great wealth, but loyalty to his genius kept him from exploiting the universal admiration extended to him by his countrymen.

It would be going too far beyond the space limits of this sketch to enter upon

*In the Art Palace at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis.

"EVENING CONCERT OF FREDERICK THE GREAT"
Painted by Adolf Menzel.

a general discussion of art life in Berlin. Though as an art center Berlin probably has to yield the palm to Munich, she harbors, as has been indicated in the foregoing article, an almost countless number of invaluable art treasures which in itself is reason enough to account for the great size of the artist colony. Other reasons are the wealth of the city, which makes it one of the principal art markets of the world, and its metropolitan character which attracts the younger set of painters and sculptors, especially those with Bohemian proclivities. It is significant to observe in this connection that practically the whole body of the art students is arrayed on the side of the modern schools. And whatever may be our individual opinion of its eccentricities and bizarreries, it must be granted that the "new art" movement has revitalized art in the stricter or narrower definition of the term, and beyond that, that it has likewise quickened all other forces of culture. The battle-cry "Applied Art" that unifies the heterogeneous elements classed, for lack of a better generic term, under "modernism," has ushered in a remarkable renascence of the handicrafts and in fact of all industries. The artists of the modern school are not content with the production of pictures for the easel and the wall; rather they regard it as their duty to minister in a great variety of ways to the country's increasing capacity for artistic emotion. Once when I visited the studio of a famous Berlin painter of the new school I surprised him in the act of carving a frame for a picture which was the work of another man. This, he said, he was doing because he saw a way of heightening the effect and complementing the beauty of that picture. It is not in the least uncommon for painters and sculptors to "apply," or as their predecessors would have said, commercialize, their art by designing, nay even by executing pieces of furniture, lamps, and bric-à-brac; and these articles bear the artist's signature just as a picture or a piece of statuary would. Wall paper, panelings, tapestry and sundry other wall decorations, also

rugs, etc., often have their origin in the same studios that turn out the "stunners" of secessionist picture shows.

Just now "interior architecture" is devotedly followed in Germany; a consider-

THE LATE ADOLF MENZEL
Famous German Painter.

able number of architects, headed by Hans Olbrich, have thrown themselves with vim into the specialty of designing rooms. With what success was observed in the so called Olbrich Pavilion at the St. Louis World's Fair. This pavilion represented in full size a modern country house, the numerous rooms of which had each been planned by some prominent artist: everything, from the shape and size of the room to the minutest detail of its furnishings, conformed to a carefully elaborated artistic scheme, many of the objects being actually the handiwork of the designer in question. Such a concerted movement directed towards the attainment of an art style which shall express itself through every object created by the hand of man, and thus serve as the visible sign of the specific culture of the new era, gives naturally a powerful impetus to the aspirations of the artisan as well as the artist, counteracts largely the baneful deterioration of public taste in an age of machinery, and accounts for the present super-excellence of the Germans in so many practical lines, and for the unparalleled triumphs won by their industrial exhibits at St. Louis.

The artists, as I have said, are hopelessly divided into clans and cliques. The musicians on the other hand, true to their calling, appear to live on the whole in harmony. While not free from its own mooted questions, the world of musicians today is, to all practical purposes, in full accord with regard to the fundamental aspects of the art; the same is true concerning the general opinion prevailing among the musicians in respect to the great composers. There is no longer, to illustrate by just one example, any serious quarrelling over the status of Richard Wagner.

In like manner the social aspect of the musician's and music student's life is less subject to change, so it seems, than is true of artist and writer. Since the days when Amy Fay's charming study on the subject was written, there has been no great transformation. The Bohemianism of the merry tribe is accentuated now as ever, outwardly, by a striking dissent from the accepted notions on the score of apparel and head-dress. Because of some mysterious association between genius and poverty, a majority of the votaries of Euterpe live in a state of perpetual indigence. Their *Höhlen* (caves, dens) are found on the top floors of the huge tenement houses in the Latin quarter north of the University; but even here, in their own precincts, as it were, the police regulations look out for the comfort of those tenants who are not musicians by providing that there shall be no practising after a set hour in the evening. The German student must often get along with a modicum of good cheer. The artist is

even more practised in the arts of chronic abstemiousness. But it is the young musician who holds letters patent on the art of living on nothing a month. That is to say, nothing but music. In Germany young people enrolled in one of the higher institutions for the study of music can attend concerts and operas "for a mere song." They may be seen from the floor or balcony huddled together in the top gallery with eyes riveted on the score (which may be hired for a single evening or for any length of time at a circulating music library).

The idols of the musical world are many. The Germans, for one thing, have great constancy in their affection for popular favorites. I believe it is Mark Twain who tells the amusing story of an old tenor who appeared in the principal parts in a series of grand operas at some famous court theater. The old man's voice had deserted him many years before and he barely "walked through" his difficult rôle. Yet at the end of each act and frequently in the middle of a scene his feeble efforts were rewarded with frantic applause. "Why this enthusiasm?" the American questioned his neighbor, "the man sings abominably." "So he does *now*," was the answer, "but you ought to have heard him twenty years ago!" Then again, the great singers are not the only ones singled out as the pets of the audience. To the German's way of looking at things there is no reason why a great orchestra-leader like Weingartner, Muck, Richard Strauss, Nikisch, and a number of others that might be named, should not deserve fully as much recognition as the principals in the cast. Still higher is his appraisal of the composer's merit. The première of a new symphony is preceded by as much expectancy and creates nearly as much excitement as the first performance of a new play or opera. We all know how vastly different this is in America where a play may have a run of a hundred evenings without the general public being any the wiser as to the authorship of the piece.

In point of fact, the most popular per-

MAX LIEBERMANN, ARTIST

sonage in the musical world of Berlin is neither a singer nor a great conductor nor yet a celebrated composer—but a violinist, and one moreover who many years ago abandoned public solo work. I mean, of course, Joseph Joachim, the founder and for many years the first violin of the world-famous chamber quartet that still bears his name, although the

REINHOLD BEGAS, SCULPTOR

master refrains, as much as his admiring friends permit, from public appearance. It is very questionable whether anywhere out of Germany Joachim would have appealed so strongly and lastingly to his hearers. He has none of the picturesque fascination of a Sarasate; rather he resembles closely in appearance and demeanor the professorial type of our own country; ever serious yet kindly, always on his dignity, and slightly ponderous. Speaking with all the meekness of layhood I should add that Joachim's playing like his personality fails now—and so it did many years ago when that great virtuoso was in his prime—to send forth the magnetic thrill that all of us expect from the violinist more than from the player of any other instrument. My observation leads me to think that the Germans have a pronounced preference for "academic" playing. For nearly all their violinists of great reputation conform to the Joachim type. It is even so with the pianists. And that explains in a measure why Paderewski has never been ranked in Germany with D'Albert, and why the latter, along with other great virtuosi, has never become the object of an American cult.

If German music and German art are represented in Berlin by at least their full quota of prominent names, the leadership of the capital in what is generally termed the literary life is almost absolute. Probably eight or nine out of every ten modern German writers of distinction are domiciled in Berlin. Yet it is not proper to speak of its literary colony in the same sense in which the term is used when speaking of New York or Boston. One would have to appreciate from a careful study of modern German literature the intense seriousness that animates German writers to understand why there can be no real communion of interest and no social intercourse between the adherents of the battling schools. In our own country the writing of plays and fiction comes dangerously near being a business or a profitable profession, while verse writing, less profitable as a rule, is generally an

even more harmless exercise of mental or merely verbal ingenuity. The ambition of playwright and novelist in the United States is to produce what will prove most acceptable to the playgoer and the reader. In defense of this meretricious practise it is frequently alleged that as a people we are too busy to devote our leisure hours to books that tax the powers of concentration. Our people go to the play, so they tell us, in order to be amused, to spend a few hours in what to them is "a pleasant way." Or, if they stay at home, they "pick up" a "light" book to get their thoughts away from the cares of shop and office. In Germany literature has not become a thing apart from the national life. On the contrary, it is brought to the surface by the same vital forces which shape the political, economic, and moral destiny of today. Where such is the case, conflicts between old and new ideals must continually arise. After all, every period in the life of a nation has its specific historic content; accordingly it seeks to create also its specific form. This is naturally the source of perpetual conflict in countries like Germany where literature has not resigned its higher function of truthfulness and been debased to a means of exclusively "popular" entertainment. All the same we should not waste overmuch pity on the self-sacrifice of German writers. The material well-being of the country during recent years has made it the rule rather than the exception for the writer of established reputation to earn a revenue commensurate with the importance of his service. The sales of works by modern authors reach very respectable, in some instances phenomenal, figures. While the average circulation of books and magazines is greater in this country, the German author benefits from the relatively higher prices paid for copy and from more advantageous contracts. A large proportion of writers are consequently enabled to live in affluence. For instance, to name a member of an older school, there is Ernst von Wildenbruch, at sixty in all probability the most prolific writer living today. He is the author of many scores of novels, short stories, ballads, and epics, being however best known as a dramatist. Wildenbruch, who is morganatically related to the Hohenzollern dynasty, was born and reared in foreign lands. After his final return to Germany he worked in obscurity, till, in

JOSEPH JOACHIM, VIOLINIST

the early eighties, he was tumultuously greeted as the worthy successor of Schiller. Nowadays one hears little of Wildenbruch; the young generation has set up other idols in his place. Yet he is as vigorous and industrious as ever. His private life is typical of the majority of successful writers. Wildenbruch lives in an apartment on Hohenzollern Strasse, in the heart of the fashionable quarter. At fifty-five he retired from his official position in the Foreign Office and has since then devoted his entire strength to literary work. He is a man of quiet and regular habits and rarely takes part in the functions and gaieties of the capital as do so

HERMANN SUDERMANN, AUTHOR

many of the younger set of littérateurs.

The winter season in Berlin is very gay indeed; for two or three months of the year the strenuous whirl is kept up. During this time one sometimes wonders how the professional men and scholars can accomplish their work; for they, like everybody else, are drawn into the vortex. The principle of "plain living" seems to be suspended at that period. People of advanced years enter into the general hilarity with the relish of youth. In fact there can be no greater devotee of such pleasures than the Nestor of the literary fraternity, Professor Ludwig Pietsch. This handsome and interesting old man —he is past eighty—was for nearly half a century society reporter for the leading Berlin daily, and remains addicted to the habit thus acquired. He started active life as a painter; later he turned journalist and author, and is most highly esteemed as an art critic. His home which is on the top floor of an apartment house—all the world lives in apartments—is one of the most tastefully furnished places imaginable. More than that, is is a perfect little museum. The walls are covered with paintings and etchings, almost without exception the personal tributes of the masters; so are the bronzes and the bric-à-brac for the most part souvenirs of the makers, and nearly every book in Pietsch's library contains the handwriting of the author. Pietsch is beyond a doubt the most popular personality in the literary world of Berlin.

More than in the heads and representatives of the old school who hold tenaciously to the classical standards, the visitor will probably be interested in the writers who have come to the front since about 1890, and have in a way revolutionized the literature of their country.

ERNST VON WILDENBRUCH, AUTHOR

The notable writers produced by the modern movement are numerous indeed. Whether the "moderns" count among their ranks any writer of real genius, is another question. Despite all the division and subdivision of the modern school two names have retained their outstanding significance in the literary history of the past fifteen or sixteen years: Gerhardt Hauptmann and Hermann Sudermann. Neither is Berlinese by birth. Hauptmann comes from the south, from Silesia, Sudermann from East Prussia. They "arrived" at the same time and have pretty nearly kept pace in their careers. In Germany Hauptmann is regarded as by far the greater of the two; in this country Sudermann is better known. The two writers are as utterly different in their work as they are in appearance and habits. Hauptmann is nervous, over-sensitive, shy, and retiring. Since fame and wealth have come to him he has withdrawn more and more from the world. The greater part of his time is spent in his country home near his native place. During the rest of the time he occupies a villa in Grunewald, a suburb of Berlin. He practically never goes among the people. Sudermann, on the other hand, is a very good "mixer." He may be seen in all sorts of public places, enjoying the company of all sorts and conditions of men. He is active in a number of organizations, as, for example, the "Goethebund," and has lately headed a movement to reform the tone of newspaper criticism.

This movement is directed specially against the famous Maximilian Harden, editor and proprietor of the weekly, *Die Zukunft,* and indisputably the most brilliant pamphleteer in the German language since Heinrich Heine. Harden, who was once an actor, attracted attention as a writer soon after he was twenty. Bismarck distinguished him by his implicit confidence. On account of his very sharp chronic attacks on the Emperor, Harden has more than once been sentenced for *lèse-majesté* to confinement in a fortress, a punishment reserved for political culprits, and involving much discomfort but carrying no odium with it. Harden is

GERHARDT HAUPTMANN, DRAMATIST

unquestionably the best-hated man in Berlin. His magazine, despite the official ban being placed on it, finds its contributors in the front rank of the best intellects of the land, and its circulation is exceeded by no periodical of its class anywhere. How devoted Harden is to his arduous task was shown a few years ago when he declined a much easier editorial position with an annual salary of 100,000 marks. This was offered him by August Scherl, the proprietor of several large publications, notably *Der Tag* and *Die Woche.* Scherl's enterprise as a publisher is hardly matched by newspaper men even in this country. Within a few years he has emerged from the obscurity of a simple journalist to the position of

the most influential and wealthiest newspaper proprietor in Germany.

Careers like those of Harden and Scherl, if two such dissimilar names may at all be coupled together, indicate what a great change has taken place in the condition of Germany. Within the memory of the present generation the empire has been transformed from an agricultural into an industrial country and in this transfiguration the United States of America has in many important respects been adopted as a model. This is the principal reason why Berlin, being typical of the "new course," resembles surprisingly an American city in the mode of life of its inhabitants. The large-minded way in which the new Berliner looks at things stands in great contrast with the petty provincialism commonly associated by the English-speaking people with everything German, and still characteristic of German life outside the capital and two or three other very large cities.

CLARA VIEBIG, AUTHOR

This is best illustrated by the present status of the woman question. Some keenly observant American women with whom I had opportunity to discuss this subject while a resident of Berlin three years or so ago, quite shared my view that in many ways the independence of German women is more pronounced than that of their English and American sisters. For instance, it is not at all improper or uncommon for women in Berlin to go unattended to the theater, restaurant, coffee-house, and to all sorts of public meetings and entertainments. Women's clubs in Berlin are numerous, largely attended well organized, and very active. The earnestness with which the German woman has struggled for higher opportunities is not any more noteworthy than that with which she has seized upon them as one by one they were conquered. A great deal of uncalled for and ignorant pity is wasted by Americans on the German woman. Americans are too apt to lose sight of the fact that conditions are changing for the better in Europe just as much as elsewhere; and in Germany the social evolution during the past two decades has progressed much more rapidly than it has in the United States. This is not denying that the German woman of certain classes is still too much of a drudge. Quite recently written books on Germany still picture vividly as the favorite exhibition of feminine servitude how a woman and dog pull patiently at a cart while the husband, trudging alongside, hands in pockets, contentedly smokes his pipe. One such illustration I know which has stirred up the deepest indignation in every reader save in the discerning ones who recognized that the group was purposely posed by the author. It were well if the finger of scorn were pointed less emphatically abroad. If the Germans, as is undoubtedly the case, are on the whole too inconsiderate of their women, the monstrous cruelty of child labor is a more specifically American violation of humanitarian commands.

But let us turn for a moment to the

brighter side of the woman question in Germany. The educational opportunities of the German girl today are practically unrestricted, and the number of well-schooled, intellectual women is in all probability greater in Germany than in English-speaking countries. There is no co-education this side of the university, yet one and the same standard is applied to both sexes. If a young woman wants to go to the university she must pass through precisely the same secondary school and college curriculum as a young man. The number of women students is increasingly large. Among the women to whom the notable progress in education is due, stands foremost Helene Lange, the founder and director of the "Gymnasialkurse für Frauen zu Berlin," *i. e.*, High School and College Courses for Women of Berlin, author of several very significant books and altogether an indefatigable worker for the betterment of the conditions of women. The occupations of wage-earning women are very varied in Germany. There are, for instance, several great banking establishments which rely mostly on women for clerical help. On the whole, however, there are by far fewer "professional" women to be found in Berlin than say in New York or Chicago, despite the fact that high distinction has been achieved by women in nearly every branch of intellectual effort, including law and medicine. It also deserves passing notice that the participation of women in politics is very active and influential. Since the Socialists' platform includes a plank for woman suffrage, it is no wonder that politically minded women show great preference for that party. In no other field, however, is the improvement of feminine work so noticeable as in literature, especially in fiction. The time is past when "lady writers" could be dismissed with sneering brevity. The German authoress of today is rightfully conscious of her relation to the culture of the age, and women in general may de-

MAX HARDEN, JOURNALIST

GABRIELE REUTER, AUTHOR

rive gratification from the fact that one can not name the foremost living writers of Germany without including several women. Of those who belong strictly to the modern period the best known are

STATUE OF WILLIAM I
By Begas.

Clara Viebig, Gabriele Reuter, Helene Böhlau, and Ricarda Huch. Clara Viebig, the most forceful and "masculine" of the four, and Ricarda Huch, by far the most artistic, devote themselves to the ethical and esthetic problems that agitate the leading writers of the masculine sex, whereas Gabriele Reuter and Helene Böhlau are more given to special pleading of women's rights. To understand their attitude one must of course know somewhat more of German life than a transient visit to German's most famous places can possibly reveal. The reader who has accompanied THE CHAUTAUQUAN on its trip through Germany will perhaps feel strengthened in his desire to study the country with greater thoroughness. If he should carry out this purpose by means of a lengthy visit, he will at once discover, by the differences presented between Berlin and places of a less metropolitan aspect, that a great change is passing over Germany. Berlin, as is perfectly natural, has taken the lead in the transformation of that staid, even flow of life, formerly characteristic of the German people, into a swift current, ceaselessly rushing on and moving the nation forward to a new and larger destiny.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What conditions are apt to strike the visitor looking for celebrities in Berlin? 2. What opportunities for seeing the Emperor are open to the average traveler? 3. What is true as to the Emperor's popularity? 4. What was the nature of the Emperor's education when crown prince? 5. How wide is the range of his interests? 6. What is the nature of his private life? 7. What qualities give Count von Bülow his great influence? 8. Why is Bebel a figure of great interest? 9. How is it possible for travelers to hear some of the great university professors? 10. Show how the type of professor has changed in recent years. 11. What difference of views divides the art world in Berlin? 12. In what ways is the new art spirit making itself felt? 13. What advantages have music students? 14. What gives Joachim his great popularity? 15. How does the German attitude toward literature differ from that in this country? 16. Who is Wildenbruch? 17. What is true of Berlin social life in winter? 18. What different social characteristics have Hauptmann and Sudermann? 19. Who is Maximilian Harden? 20. How is the advancement of German women shown in Berlin?

SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. In what fields of work have Harnack and Pfleiderer achieved fame? 2. Helmholtz, Curtius, Virchow, and Von Sybel? 3. What are the chief incidents in the life of Menzel? 4. For what great work is Mommsen celebrated? 5. What is Amy Fay's study of German life? 6. Who was Euterpe?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

In addition to the bibliography appended to the article, Berlin I, in the April CHAUTAUQUAN, the reader is referred to Professor Heller's new book "Studies in Modern German Literature," Ginn and Co.

Wagner and His Music

By Thomas Whitney Surette

Lecturer on Music for the American University Extension Society, Teachers' College of Columbia University, The Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences. Member of the Folk Song Society of London, Editor Great Composers' Series Music Lovers' Library.

THE various stages in the development of pure music through which we have progressed lead logically to the consideration of the instrumental compositions of Mendelssohn, Chopin, and the other great men of the early nineteenth century, rather than to Wagner's music; but the exigencies of the situation seem to call for an article on the most popular of modern composers, Richard Wagner. To a certain extent Wagner is in the line of that development since there is an analogy between the development of song and of opera, and since Wagner's whole scheme of harmony is a natural outcome of that to be found in the instrumental music of his predecessors. Reference was made in the article on Schubert, in the March CHAUTAUQUAN, to this parallelism between song and opera, and the general relation of Wagner's music to that of the symphonic composers who immediately preceded him will be shortly considered here.

As in the case of each of the composers we have been studying, Wagner's contribution to the development of music was a natural evolution. He has been credited with inaugurating startling changes in the art; his music was called "the music of the future," but it was no more so than was the music of Mozart or Beethoven in their time. All Wagner's later works are called Music Dramas as distinguished from Operas. They owe this title to the fact that they are founded on serious dramatic stories which are of great interest in themselves, and are not merely threads on which to string brilliant jewels of song.

This distinction may be made clear by a glance at an older opera, both as to subject and construction. Mozart's * "Il Flauto Magico" (The Magic Flute) will serve this purpose. The story of this opera is of a somewhat fantastic and trivial nature, not, in itself, of any wide human interest, but, on the contrary, one which, if it were presented merely as a play, would be lacking in dramatic purposes. Appended is a list of the music in the first act:

ACT I

Overture
No. 1. Introduction
No. 2. Arietta
No. 3. Cavatina

*The Magic Flute is founded on a fairy story called "Lulu, oder die Zauberflöte." While full of extravagancies, it has elements of interest. The librettist added to it references to Free Masons who were at that time being somewhat persecuted by the government.

This is the last of a series of nine articles on "German Master Musicians." The complete list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Bach (September), by William Armstrong. Handel (October), Haydn (November), Mozart (December), Beethoven I (January), Beethoven II (February), Schubert (March), Schumann (April), Wagner (May), by Thomas Whitney Surette.

No. 4. Recitative and Aria
No. 5. Quintet
No. 6. Trio
No. 7. Duet
No. 8. Finale { Trio, Recitative, Aria, Duet, Chorus, Duet, Chorus, Concerted Piece, Chorus

This list of pieces looks like a concert program, and reminds us of Wagner's saying that the old opera was "a concert in costume." The recitative was **recitativo secco.* (There was also spoken dialogue in some of Mozart's operas.) The important parts of the story were told in the recitatives or dialogues, and the musical numbers adhered to the usual plan governing (at that time) both vocal and instrumental music. In the Arietta (No. 2), for example, after a brief introduction in which the air is played through, the voice begins a strophic melody which is just eight measures long and ends in a related key. The second strain then follows, after which the two strains are repeated. The form is, then, A. B. A. B. The first half of this arietta is given below.

It will be noticed that the last nine numbers in the list are grouped under the heading "Finale." Mozart's Finales**

* "That free form of colloquial recitative that is accompanied by a 'cello and double-bass, with a few improvised chords struck by the cembalist" (pianist). Apthorp, "The Opera Past and Present."

**The reader is referred to Apthorp's "The Opera Past and Present" for an estimate of Mozart's operas; we are here discussing only the significance of the librettos, and the construction of the music. If only one book is chosen from the bibliography the author recommends this one.

ARIETTA, BY MOZART

constituted an important part of the construction of his operas, and in their dramatic and musical cohesiveness foreshadowing the development of later days.

Here then we have a work of art in which there is only a formal union between its two great mediums of expression, music and language, and however expressive at times the music may be of the sense of the words, it is no exaggeration to say that the story plays a comparatively unimportant part. The music-drama, on the contrary, has for its chief purpose of enactment of a significant and moving story by means of various agencies each of which lends itself to the common end. Among these agencies music takes its place not as dictator but as servant. Its office is to be a kind of sublimated speech; to express, not alone beauty for beauty's sake, but to give utterance to certain specific ideas, emotions, etc., as they appear, and, for the moment, dominate in the drama. And this new office of music—to be specific, or descriptive—found its best expression in the **leit-motif*, or characteristic musical phrase. The leit-motif was no new thing in music; it may be found as far back as the seventeenth century and had long been tentatively used in both instrumental and operatic music. Its use in opera may be observed to advantage in Weber's "Der Freischutz" where the huntsmen's music is strikingly appropriate, or where, in the incantation scene Casper moulds the bullets. In Mozart's "Don Giovanni," also, use is made of a characteristic phrase when the statue sings. That portentous moment receives expression in long solemn chords through which the statue of the Commander speaks. A portion of this passage, with part of Don Giovanni's answer is given on page 238.

It will be observed that Don Giovanni's answer is accompanied by restless music entirely unlike the solemn chords of the passage for the Commander. This excerpt has been specially selected to show that the leit-motif as used by Mozart is not empirical; that is, this passage actually does give expression, and by familiar and recognized means, to the solemnity of the Commander's words, and does not employ a musical phrase which the composer invents for the purpose and which he (in effect) asks you to accept as suitable. In other words there are certain feelings, actions, ideas that lend themselves to musical investiture and certain others that do not, and the modern idea being to have all the personages, feelings, etc., expressed through leit-motifs, it naturally follows that many of these motifs are empirical. It must be remembered that music is not a language; that its power of definite expression is limited, and that it can only be used to express generic rather than particular feelings, events, etc. One can say that a strain of music is heroic or tender, sad or gay, but to distinguish in a more particular manner is not its office. Take as an illustration the motif called "The Justice of Expiation," sometimes known as "The Right of Expiation," from Wagner's "Götterdämmerung." The idea of expiation, by itself, is not susceptible of expression in music, much less is the compound idea given in the above titles.

This motif, then, is empirical. It has been stated that, ** "it would be just as

easy to build up a language of musical tones capable of expressing ideas as it was to build up a language of words," which causes one to remember that language has

*Literally, *leading motif*, or phrase. (See Grove's Dictionary.)

**Krehbiel, "Studies in the Wagnerian Drama," p. 21.

The Statue
Sq. Don
Andante.
f
Ju an thou didst in- vite me
To thy banquet; la I am present!
Don Giovanni.
Tho' unbidden for this is pleasant, I will strain my best to do.

MOZART'S "DON GIOVANNI," ACT II

taken centuries in its building, and that words acquire meaning gradually, and that, whatever may be the possibilities of music as a language it has not yet acquired definiteness of meaning, and there seems to be scant justification for its use in that way.

The truth is that Wagner has suffered from over stress being laid on this phase of his work; from many of the books written about his music dramas one gets a wrong impression of what he intended.

What, then, is the significance of the leit-motif? What is the office of music when, in a drama, it is used to express what it can of definite action or feeling? The answer to these questions we think to be this, namely, that music when applied to such purposes can only serve to intensify and illustrate; but that the solemn chords from the trombones in "Don Giovanni" add to the solemnity of the moment something that neither the words nor the action supply; that the passage the Commander sings is speech raised to its highest potency; but that the phrase of music constituting the Wagnerian leit-motif cannot, in the nature of things, get beyond these limitations no matter how persistently and systematically it may be used.

One more point needs to be considered. The structure of the music-drama differs materially from that of the opera in that the divisions into solos, duets, choruses, etc., are largely eliminated, and in their place there is an endless melody *(melos)* called *Aria Parlante* (spoken song), and lyric numbers only occur when the logical development of the story permits. In short the lyrics in Wagner's music-dramas occupy the same relative position in the structure that is occupied by the lyrics in a play of Shakespeare. This important element in our statement of the music-drama will be more fully considered later in this article.

The first selection to be studied here is the Spinning chorus from "Der Fliegender Holländer" ("The Flying Dutchman"). It is left to the student's own investigation to find the accounts of this work in one of the books mentioned in the bibliography. The story should be read and the situation of this particular musical number identified. Throughout this chorus the maidens sit spinning in Daland's house and the movement of their wheels is hinted at in the whirring trill-like passage that sounds almost continuously. The words are in poetic form, the first verse being as follows:

"Hum, hum, hum, good wheel be whirling
Gaily, gaily, turn thee round.
Spin, spin, spin, the threads be twirling,
Turn, good wheel, with humming sound."

The music* for each of these lines is four measures long, making, altogether, a perfect strophic verse such as would usually be found in the older instrumental music. (See article on Haydn in the November CHAUTAUQUAN).

The various interruptions that occur when Mary speaks to her companions will be observed by the student, and finally, after the maidens sing the passage beginning "She has no need to work," etc., Senta, the heroine, sings softly to herself while the orchestra plays the first part of the Senta motif (C major, six-eight, *Piu Lento).* This motif, with that of the Dutchman given below, are the two chief musical ideas that dominate throughout the whole opera.

The short phrase for Senta to the words, "Why hast thou told me of his sorrows?" should be noted for the expressiveness of its musical setting; the succeeding passages for Senta are equally interesting.

Here, then, we have a lyric number in chorus form justified by the situation and free enough, musically, to give expression to a varied play of feeling. This represents Wagner's early style. Those

*This piece may be had for piano, two hands, for 40 cents, and four hands for 70 cents. It is also published in the form of a pianola roll.

The two versions should be compared. At (61) the motif of "Siegfried" appears, as Wotan announces that one more free even than the God shall pierce the flames. In the next drama "Siegfried," its hero, Siegfried, does brave the fire and awaken Brunnhilde, and it should be observed that the motif appears before the character to whom it is attached enters the story at all.

During the passage between (68) and (91) Wotan holds Brunnhilde in a long embrace. The chief motif here is that called by Lavignac "The Announcement of a New Life." At (84) the motif of "Brunnhilde's Sleep" enters, and continues in the orchestra after Wotan begins the last part of his song, the words of which are as follows:

"Those eyes so lustrous and clear which oft in love I have kissed,
When war-like longings won my lauding, or when with lispings of hero's deeds thy honied lips were inspired;
These effulgent, glorious eyes, whose flash my gloom oft dispelled,
When hopeless cravings my heart discouraged, or when my wishes toward worldly pleasures from wild warfare were turning;
Their lustrous gaze lights on me now, as my lips imprint this last farewell!
On happier mortal here shall they beam; the grief suffering God may ne'er henceforth behold them!
Now, heart torn, he gives thee his kiss, and taketh thy Godhood away."

The above passage takes in the music between (92) and (128). Here, in the arrangement we are studying, a portion is omitted during which Wotan calls Loge, the God of Fire, to surround Brunnhilde's couch with flames. Our study piece gives the passage containing the motif of "Eternal Sleep" (129-136) as in the original and then passes to the "Fire Music" with which the drama closes. This long ending is significant musically since it employs various already familiar motifs, accompanying them, the while, with the figures of the "Fire Charm."

"Parsifal" is a Sacred Festival Music-Drama; Wagner's title for it is "Bühnenweihfestspiel." The story with an account of its origins and of Wagner's changes in it may be found in Lavignac's book. The selection to be studied here is called "Das Liebesmahl" (The Love-Feast), and the arrangement is by Humperdink, the composer of "Hänsel, and Gretel," and Wagner's assistant at Bayreuth. "Das Liebesmahl" * includes portions of the scene (Act I) in the Grail Hall, and the motifs used are, for the most part, those associated with the solemn ceremony there enacted. These motifs will be identified as they appear.

The first twenty-four measures deal with the motif called by the commentators "The Eucharist." This appears at (5) in a fragmentary form, and is given complete at (20-25); "it is immediately repeated, harmonized with arpeggio envelopments, to which the harp lends its priestly character" (28-33). It enters again at (39) but with a more poignant expression, the intervals and the harmony being somewhat changed to produce this result. Four notes from the Eucharist motif [they may be observed at (23)] are now used (51) several times successively and with much accentuation, and these Lavignac calls the "Lance" motif. (Students are asked here to consider for themselves how fitting is the designation, and how justifiable the proceeding). Above the Lance motif, at (50), and accompanying it, at (54) there enters the motif called by Lavignac "The Cry to the Savior," expressive of the grief and mortal anguish of the stricken king, Amfortas. At (65) the basses play for a moment a portion of the processional which accompanied Gournemanz and Parsifal in their journey to the Grail Hall. At (73) the music of the service around the holy table begins. This passage, sung in unison, accompanies the apportioning of the bread and wine to the kneeling knights. This is succeeded (106) by the chorus, "Take of this bread," which is accompanied in the basses by the phrase

* "Das Liebesmahl" may be had for piano, four hands, for 65 cents; it is also published in the form of a roll for pianola.

There is no royal road to the understanding of this music. No amount of naming and cataloguing of leit-motifs will achieve a real understanding of it. The proper preparation consists in an entire familiarity with the story in all its details. Having achieved this the music will or will not then appeal to you, as appropriate and significant according to the cultivation of your musical sensibilities. The fact that you can recognize a certain succession of notes as a certain motif is not of itself valuable if you are not able to realize of your own volition that those notes constitute a musical passage that is, in itself, appropriate and significant. It doesn't take half an eye to see that here we are stating a fact in education that needs to be applied on all hands. Our protest is against the modern process of learning things by short cuts, against feeding the brain on patent foods. Knowledge must be assimilated to be of any use to its possessor.

Since the literature of the Niebelungen Lied is of great extent and of almost as great interest, it is to be hoped that the student will take advantage of the opportunities afforded him to read at least one of the books suggested out of those not specially devoted to the music of Wagner. And by reference to Lavignac's book on Wagner it will be possible to get a good idea of the particular scene with which the next musical excerpt deals. It is essential, then, to an understanding of this scene that the reader should know all the details of the story of "Das Rheingold" and of "Die Walküre."

* "Wotan Abschied und Feuerzauber." (Wotan's Farewell and the Firecharm) is to be here studied in the arrangement for pianoforte, four hands. The complete scene is embodied save a short passage to which reference will be made later. The words of the first part of Wotan's Farewell †(10-67) are as follows:

"Farewell, my brave and beautiful child!
Thou once the light and life of my heart!
Farewell! farewell! farewell!
Loth I must leave thee: no more in love may I grant thee my greeting;
Henceforth my maid no more with me rideth, nor waiteth wine to bring me.
When I relinquish thee, my beloved one, thou laughing delight of my eyes,
Thy bed shall be lit by torches more brilliant than ever for bridal have burned.
Fiery gleams shall girdle the fell, with terrible scorchings scaring the timid, who, cowed, may cross not Brunnhilde's couch.
For one alone freeth the bride; one freer than I, the God!"

The first part of the passage is half way between the old Aria, and Aria Parlante, and may be studied as an example of the kind of music frequently to be found in the Wagner music-drama. It follows closely the natural inflections of the words and has just enough regularity to make a definite melodic and rhythmic impression without slavishly following the stiff four and eight measure groupings of the old arias. Of course Wagner conceived this idea when he created the words, purposely avoiding conventional verse forms. An example of this may be observed at (33-38) where the words include the complete line beginning, "Henceforth my maid"; the music for this is six measures long, one phrase being two measures and the other four. At (47) begins the motif of "Eternal Sleep" whose harmonies are here presented through the figure of "The Flames." "Eternal Sleep" in its original form is as follows:

*This piece may be had for 85 cents. It is also published in the form of a roll for pianola.

†The numbers in parenthesis always refer to the consecutive numbered measures of the music. Students should number their copies accordingly.

erected some finger posts to help willing students.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is the esthetic significance of the music in the spinning scene from "The Flying Dutchman?" What does it add to the expression of the scene? 2. What is the significance of the Niebelungen Lied story in relation to modern life? 3. What evidences do you find in the last two pieces of illustrative music for this article in justification of the statement concerning the use of the orchestra?

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End of June Required Reading for the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, Pages 206 to 244.

Recent Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare

Modern Aspects of Physiology

By Ida H. Hyde, Ph. D.

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NO period has been so rich in physiological discoveries as the last forty years, and today physiology is rightly regarded as the foundation stone of the science of disease, and thus as the basis of scientific treatment. Recent investigations have transferred many of the problems of the functions of different organs, which have hitherto not been clearly understood, from the field of physiology to those of chemistry and physical chemistry. In the following pages attention will be given to the theories in physical chemistry which especially apply and explain some of the phenomena of life, and to important physiological investigations pursued to test these theories.

Until quite recently it was believed that the working power of the organs, as for example the digestion of food, the contraction of muscles in the heart, and in locomotion, was produced by a special power unknown in the inorganic world and spoken of as a "vital force." When it was discovered that fats, sugars and other organic products that exist in the cells and fluids of animals and plants, can be manufactured in the laboratory, and that many of the functions of the body can be explained by chemical and physical laws, the conception of a mystical law that governs life phenomena was overthrown, and a new era dawned in the province of physiology, which was

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This is the last of a series of articles on "Recent Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare." The following articles have already appeared: "Bacteriology: Food, Drink, and Sewage" (September), "Bacteriology: Contagious Diseases" (October), by Professor H. W. Conn; "Contemporary Psychology" (January), by Professor J. R. Angell; "Progress in Geography" (April), by Gilbert H. Grosvenor.

the beginning of a long struggle to bring the phenomena of all living matter within the operation of chemical and physical laws without recourse to the supernatural. According to this new view which is the foundation of modern physiology all phenomena of animate and inanimate matter are alike expressions of chemical and physical processes.

The human body is capable of more varied work than that of any other animal or machine, and has therefore a more complicated structure. The organs are composed of many parts differing from each other in appearance, chemical structure, and in the specific work that they perform, but all of the parts from the most simple to the most complex work together to maintain the life, heat, and energy of the body.

It is an established fact that all vital phenomena whether in plants or animals are the result of the activity of minute structures called cells. They are visible only by means of the microscope, and those of the different tissues are so characteristic in appearance and composition that when their acquaintance has once been made they are quickly recognized when met again. All however conform to a fundamental type, and possessing the power of taking food from the surrounding fluid, are capable of building it up into their like, storing it or decomposing it, and are thus capable of converting it into some form of work or energy such as contraction, secretion and heat. All the cells have a life, a death, and are capable of reproduction, mainly by what is known as cell division. Some like the red corpuscles of the blood are round disks, some like the muscle cells are elongated fibers, still others like the nerve cells have very long fiber-like processes.

We may regard the amoeba, the simplest and lowest form of living organisms, as a typical cell. It consists of a single cell composed of a bit of living material or protoplasm which is a viscid, translucent, granular substance, often forming a spongy or foam-like structure in the cell, and resembling white of egg in appearance. The amoeba like other cells also contains a nucleus or kernel. The latter is considered the controlling center of cell activity and the chief factor in the growth and transmission of specific qualities from cell to cell, and so from one generation to another. The amoeba, which looks exactly like a human, white blood corpuscle, has of course no organs or nerves, since it consists of only one cell. Nevertheless, in consequence of its cell protoplasm, which is the most complex chemical structure known, it possesses all that is requisite for digestion, circulation, excretion, reproduction, and growth; the power moreover to respond or react to all physical forces such as light, heat, electricity, also to gravity, chemical and mechanical effects. In short all that is necessary for life and development. It is because certain cells take on particular kinds of work that the different functions which exist in higher animals and plants have been evolved. For example the nervous system is characterized by its peculiar property of rapid conduction along its nerve fibers, and great irritability. The most striking and important differences between animal and vegetable life are due to the peculiar structure, the nerve cell, and the higher offices that it has come to assume. Through its rapid conduction power of about thirty yards a second, it is able to bring far and near tissues of the body together, and enables those that influence and are dependent on each other to come into closer contact or reaction by means of the conduction of a nerve impulse, or what is the same thing a chemical or physical change in the nerve protoplasm, aroused by some external cause, such as heat, light, current of electricity, or other chemical or physical forces. Since all such forces can excite or stimulate nerves, we speak of them as stimuli. But it is also due to the irritability of nerve cells that the health and prosperity of life is secured. As it is extremely desirable that means shall be pro-

when sugar is put into water, dissolving and spreading from the lump through the water, or from one side of a membrane that surrounds it through it to the other side where there was no sugar. This power of substances in solution to pass through animal membranes is known as dialysis or osmosis, and the pressure which the ions in solution exert against the membrane is known as osmotic pressure. Furthermore it is now generally recognized that the living membrane or wall of a cell is semipermeable, that is, it may permit passage to certain substances inwards but not under normal or healthy conditions outwards or vice versa. Consequently the structure and property of the cell wall and the osmotic pressure are important factors in the effect produced upon the body by poisons and anesthetics, an understanding of which enables us to perceive how narcotics and anesthetics exert their influence and are poisonous. It is probable that substances like ether dissolve the fat in the cell membrane, enter the cell and combine with or dissolve the colloids, such as fats, in the cell. Since coagulation of colloids in the cell leads to stimulation or sensation, dissolution of the constituents of the cell, especially of nerve cells upon which ether acts would prevent the stimulation and sensation, and thus produce a state of unconsciousness that follows the use of ether and other anesthetics.

Many investigators have lately studied the action of salt solutions or their electrically charged ions on colloids in cells. The results achieved led to the belief that any alteration in the natural or normal proportion or kind of salts in the cell, causes a change in the condition of its other contents. Moreover that the specific work of the body cells depends upon definite proportions of special salts, particularly common salt (sodium chloride), lime (calcium chloride), and potash (potassium chloride), which may be in combination with the protoplasmic colloids in the cell. Anything that alters the natural or normal proportion of salts in the cell, or blood outside of it, either by withdrawing water or one or more of its salts or by causing the cell to absorb much water or salts from the blood, produces a poisonous effect, which may lead to its disease and to a change in its function. Certain salts or drugs that can penetrate the cell wall cause coagulation or setting of the colloids in the cell just as an electrical current does, the result being a stimulation, or irritation or change in its activity. The same effect is produced when a substance like alcohol withdraws water from the cell, causing coagulation of the cell contents. Other drugs have an opposite effect in that they dissolve the cell colloids and thus suppress or stop the stimulating action of other salts.

Loeb may be regarded among the foremost physiologists who applied the conclusions of physical chemistry in the investigations of the functions of the body, in the belief that these conclusions would enlighten us regarding many physiological functions which are not understood. From many experiments he and others were able to draw the above conclusions, some of them from experiments on frog's muscles. Since a frog's muscle contracts each time it is stimulated with an electrical current, the idea suggested itself to him, that the contraction might be produced by the electrical charges carried by the ions in salt solutions. He found that when frog's muscles were placed in frog's blood which contains salts in solution that they do not beat or contract rhythmically; if they did we should expect them to have convulsions in the frog's body. If however the frog's muscles are placed in common salt solution they begin to contract rhythmically as if they were stimulated rhythmically with an electrical current, but they stop at once if placed in a solution of sugar or glycerine, which are non-electrolytes, that do not break up in ions that carry electrical charges. Consequently Loeb concluded that the unnatural contractions

of frog's muscles in common salt solutions were not produced by the salts but by the electrical charges of the ions, since the muscles do not contract in non-electrolytes. He discovered also that the muscles will stop contracting in a salt solution if a little lime is added, because the lime removes the poisonous effect of the salt in that it enters the cell and again restores the natural proportion of salt in the blood and cell; for this reason the frog's muscle does not contract in blood which contains enough lime to pre vent contractions. When the muscle is placed in the common salt some of the salt ions enter the cell or some of the lime passes out, thus disturbing the natural proportion of salts in the cell; moreover the electrical change carried by the lime ion counteracts the stimulating action of the electrical charge of the sodium chloride.

When we consider how many salts are employed in medicine and food or are dissolved in the body fluids and cells we realize that many important reactions are constantly occurring between the ions of salts in fluids and cells of the body and that we probably owe it to the lime or calcium chloride in our blood that our muscles do not contract spasmodically. Moreover in certain diseases which are accompanied by convulsions, ions of salts that are charged with positive electricity like that carried by the lime ion would probably stop or inhibit the spasms.

The important facts deduced from numerous investigations made it evident that the poisonous, stimulating and depressing action of salt solutions in cells or in the blood is due to definite electrical charges which act on the colloidal contents of the cells in opposite manner. Positive electricity depresses; it acts like an anesthetic or the positive pole of an electric current, in that it dissolves colloids, while negative electricity or the negative pole, causes coagulation or setting, and poisonous or stimulating effects in nerve and other tissue cells. Loeb and others believe that alterations in the proportions of inorganic salts in the blood may lead to disorders that can be counteracted by the administration of proper salts. Paralysis they believe may be due to an excess of potash or lime ions; while over excitation as in epilepsy to an excess of negative charged ions like citrate or chloride, which stimulate certain affected parts of the brain. These views have been strengthened by the results obtained when sodium citrate was injected into the blood, causing convulsions and when lime or calcium chloride was then injected the spasms ceased. These experiments which must prove of great benefit to man suggest the use of properly selected salts as a cure for many maladies.

A question which is attracting considerable interest, is the mode of action of an extensive and most important class of substances known as ferments. They are either living cells like yeast or bacteria, that change or decompose particular substances, or they are the extracts or secretions of cells, as for example, the ferment in the saliva which changes starch into sugar, just as occurs in germinating seeds and later in the ripening of fruit through a starch changing ferment. It is probable that more than one kind of ferment exists in every cell of animals and plants, and that the digestion, or building up and breaking down of food substances in the cells is due to these ferments.

It is very remarkable that some plant cells form buds that develop into leaves and others buds that produce flowers, though all of the cells are fed from the same plant sap; but no less astonishing is the fact that the cells of the body, for example those that pour their secretions into the digestive organs and that receive their food from the blood, should produce different and special secretions, some acid, others alkaline, and in addition special ferments, that either break up fat, starch or proteid or build them up from similar elements. Ferments are now regarded as the factors that keep the cell contents in

a normal state of equilibrium. When there is an excess of fat they decompose it into glycerine and fatty acid which is passed out of the cell, or they build up the fatty acids and glycerine into fat inside of the cell. It is not known what the nature of the action of ferments is. They are believed to exert their influence through the energy of their minutely divided particles as do ions or their electrical charges.

The intense interest taken by scientists in these most important reactions constantly going on in the body is shown by the recent contributions to science on this subject. Added to the reversible function, that is, the breaking down and building up power of the ferments, is another of great interest which has recently been observed and which shows that the secretion of one set of gland cells stimulates other gland cells, the secretion of which aids in completing a definite function, as for example it has been discovered that a secretion from the stomach and intestinal glands is taken up by the blood and carried to the pancreas, a gland situated near the stomach which secretes a digestive fluid. When the ferment from the stomach reaches the pancreas cells it produces a change in them which results in the production of an active ferment in the pancreas which is known as trypsin. The ferment trypsin decomposes the proteids of the food, and changes them into chemically new substances which are so diffusible that they can pass through the intestinal wall into the blood. Through these results an important field of investigation has been opened which promises to reveal that profound chemical interactions exist between various tissues of the body, a knowledge of which will prove of great value to physicians.

After years of speculation we have finally learned that the oxidation or burning in the body of food substances like fats and sugars into carbon dioxide gas and water is accomplished through ferment action.

Although the ultimate cause of diabetes, that is, excess of sugar in the blood, is not established, Cohnheim has recently made known that for the normal oxidation of sugar the action of two ferments from different tissues is required, one from the pancreas cells and the other from the muscles, the one acting as a stimulus or ferment for the production of the other. He has furthermore shown that the oxidation of sugar, one of the most interesting chemical processes in the body can be produced in the laboratory with solutions of finely chopped muscle and pancreas. It is possible that further investigations will establish a ferment therapy, the ferments being obtained from animals and injected into the body as a curative similar to that of antitoxin.

"I am
Fearfully and wonderfully made:
Wonderful are Thy works and that my soul
knoweth right well."—*Psalms.*

How the American Boy Is Educated

The University and the Continuation School

By Walter L. Hervey

Formerly President of Teacher's College; Member of the Board of Examiners, New York City Schools.

IN every country of the civilized world, the institution which gives the most advanced instruction, whatever form that may take except the exclusively practical, is called a university." University students are those who are able and willing to spend the maximum time in preparation for giving the maximum service in life.

At the opposite extreme from the university stands the continuation school. It is designed for those to whom all other avenues of instruction are closed; those who are immersed, often permanently, in the responsibilities of living and earning a livelihood; those, for the most part, who by choice or necessity spend the minimum time in school. Its studies range from the liberal to the exclusively practical, and from the rudiments to the most advanced technical branches.

Sharp as is the contrast between these institutions, they yet have essential points in common. Both are in the highest sense practical; both include the whole range of human interests; and each, as a rule, gives its respective students their final course of systematic instruction.

Specialized knowledge, philosophy, and research, these are the three distinctive marks of a university course; with these belongs serviceableness, which is the mark of efficient education at every stage, from the kindergarten through the university. Of these the most characteristic and inclusive mark is research. A man who conducts a piece of research work must have mastered the history of his special subject, must know all that is known about it to date, must conduct first-hand observations or experiments, or both, with a view to discovering new knowledge, must interpret what he discovers in the light of a broad knowledge of life, must organize his work into a vital whole, and must give adequate expression of his ideas. The apparently theoretical work of the university is thus closely related to the practical work of life. For the highest work in life is precisely such a focalizing and totalizing process. The best work in the world is done by men who attack their problems in this broad fashion. The theorist and the practical man are not normally two distinct persons. They are one and the same man viewed from different sides. The best safeguard against a man's ever becoming a mere theorist or a mere practical man, is a university course, *if that be taken as a preparation for social service.*

Sometimes the practical use of a university course to the individual and to society, is not at once apparent. The man "who settled hoti's business" is not immediately hailed as a public benefactor; it may be a thousand years, or more, before his work appreciably heightens the tide

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This is the last of a series of nine articles on "How the American Boy Is Educated." In this series Mr. Hervey undertakes to give a picture of the various contrasting conditions under which the American boy is being built into a man through education. The following articles have already appeared: Education and the American Boy, September; Home Education, October; Bodily Basis: Physician and Teacher, November; Schooling in Country and City, December; Changes in the Common School Curriculum, January; Aspects of the Elementary School, February; The High School Period, March; The American Boy and His College, April.

of human life. Researches in "conduct and the weather," "the education of the Pueblo child," "Hegel as educator," "the historical development of school readers and of methods in teaching reading," "educational legislation and administration in the colonies," and "continuation schools," may bear fruit only after a long time, and then indirectly. But that fruit will surely come. The importance, practically, of the least addition to our knowledge of the truth (for how extremely limited that knowledge is!) is incalculable. Whether it prove incalculably great or incalculably small is none of our business. Of even greater importance in most cases, than the item of knowledge discovered, is the effect of the search on the man making it.

Sometimes, on the other hand, the practical effect of university studies is immediately and profoundly felt. This is especially true in engineering, in medicine, and in the social sciences, including education. Researches in household economics—in the cost of living, in the apportionment of income—are almost immediately disseminated, through trained settlement workers, among scores of homes on the "lower east side;" and through these among hundreds more. "A good deed in a naughty world" shines no farther than one good suggestion born of painstaking research.

Another example. There are in the City of New York over 600,000 school children, taught by 14,000 teachers, supervised by 500 principals, 26 district superintendents, 8 associate superintendents, and one city superintendent. How is the university to reach the half million children in these five hundred schools? In many ways. The examiners who license the principals and teachers and the superintendents who supervise their work are in (more or less) constant touch with the fruits of university teaching and research. The principals and teachers resort to the universities by hundreds for inspiration, instruction, and training. The makers of the best text books are those who are most keenly alive to what the university has done and is doing. And, finally, to give a more specific case, the city superintendent calls a conference of superintendents, examiners, and principals of training schools, for the discussion of principles and methods in some special line. The subject may be "methods of teaching primary arithmetic," or it may be the question of ethical instruction in schools. Whatever the subject be, the conference is debtor to the university; for such a conference cannot be successfully held without recourse to the fruits of university teaching and research. But this supervisor's conference is but the precursor of principals' conferences conducted by the superintendents; which are followed in turn by teachers' conferences conducted by the principals. The torch is handed on (one devoutly wishes it might be so), without loss and even with increase of light, from the university to the humblest child.

One may easily grant the great value both to the individual and to the community of encouraging the most able and ambitious of the young men to take a university course. And one may even admit the desirability of affording such advantage free of charge, through private endowments, scholarships, fellowships, and appropriations to state universities. And yet the problem, in any individual case, of withdrawing from directly productive work for a period of three or four years, and those perhaps the best years of life, is a most serious one. Here is a boy who began his school life at the age of three or four in the kindergarten, and has remained continuously in school and college for eighteen or twenty years. Is he to lengthen this period of dependence and of preparation by three or four precious years more? He will be twenty-six or twenty-eight years old before he is ready for the real business of life. He will hardly be able to support himself, to say nothing of supporting a wife and family,

until he is thirty. This is "prolongation of infancy" with a vengeance. This problem has given rise to the present agitation relative to shortening the period of tutelage, either by saving time in the elementary school, by dipping down and enriching; or by cutting down the length of the college course and increasing its disciplinary efficiency; or by merging the top of the college and the bottom of the professional school, or by all these methods combined. Meantime, the world is calling more insistently for the man who has the elasticity, adaptability, initiative, self-reliance, perspective, sanity, insight, resourcefulness, and practical idealism, which it is the province of the university to give. Of men of the proper calibre it may be truly said that they cannot waste three years more effectively than by not going to a university.

For the vast majority of American boys the problem of "prolongation of infancy" does not exist. In their case, the problem is rather that of precipitation of adulthood. The compulsory education laws aim to keep the boy in school until he masters the rudiments, and in this they are measurably successful. But the rudiments, as every one knows, do not so much teach one how to live and earn a living as how to begin to learn how. The boy who knows no more than the compulsory education laws force him to learn, is nothing but a rough outline sketch of a man. How, by their own initiative, or by trade regulations, or by social stimulus, American boys are impelled to fill in this outline sketch and prolong the period of growth under guidance, is the question we have now, in concluding this series, to answer.

Opportunities whereby young men may study after business hours are furnished in Germany, France, England, and America. In Germany such work has been carried on for sixty years, and for the past thirty years it has been compulsory in certain cases. There are now about 12,000 of the so-called "Fortbildungsschulen." They are held Sunday mornings and week day evenings. The subjects taught are practical and adapted to the trades and occupations of the locality. In Leipsic, for example, a great center for continuation schools, and also for printing and book-making, there are classes for boys and young men learning the printer's trade. I once visited two of these. One was for press operators, the other for typesetters. In the former, improved machinery was being shown and explained in pictures and diagrams. In the other, among other things, a short course in Latin was given, not for its cultural value or for purposes of translation, but simply in order to familiarize intending typesetters with the forms of Latin paradigms, abbreviations, and phrases. These young fellows were practically forced by their employers and the trades' union to attend these schools. They could not rise in their trade without presenting the proper certificate from the Fortbildungsschule. In Bavaria the compulsion takes a different form. We read of a workingman who was prohibited from marrying until he could produce a certificate that he had completed a prescribed course in "Sunday school."

In France the movement is much newer and the schools are fewer. They are chiefly designed for illiterates, for those desiring to review the work of the elementary school, and those desiring preparation for a special vocation.

In England, prior to 1890, the curriculum of the night schools was largely confined to elementary subjects. Since then, however, the list of subjects has broadened and the attendance of young men over twenty-one has been encouraged. In 1898 the voluntary attendance on night schools in England and Wales was 43,600 in 5,535 schools. In Manchester, in 1903-04 there were in attendance in the night schools, including the Municipal School of Technology, nearly 20,000 of both sexes. Among the subjects studied

in addition to those ordinarily found in evening schools are the following: secretarial work and practise, indexing, income tax practice and accounts, economics of commerce, company law. Ten modern languages are taught including Danish, Dutch, Japanese, modern Greek, Portugese, and Russian. The London Polytechnic, which began about forty years ago as a school for street urchins, now numbers between 15,000 and 20,000 students in science, art, and technology.

In the United States the first organized movement for evening schools was begun in 1823 by the Public School Society in New York City. In 1848 Worcester began a successful night school. In 1859 Cooper Union opened its doors, which have never since been closed to ambitious young men and women. In 1868 evening schools were conducted in connection with the public schools of ten of the principal cities of the United States, from New York to San Francisco. In 1901 the statistics show that in cities of over 8,000 inhabitants there were 921 evening schools with 5,115 teachers and 203,000 pupils, 121,886 of whom were men. There are today probably more than 300,000 pupils enrolled in the night schools of the United States. These schools may be classified as elementary and higher; and as general trade, art, collegiate, semi-professional and professional. They are found in connection with the public schools, the Y. M. C. A., churches, trade schools, colleges, and such institutions as Cooper Union, Pratt Institute, Drexel Institute, Society of Mechanics and Tradesmen, Lowell Textile School, Armour Institute, California School of Mechanical Arts, Maryland Institute of Arts and Design, and Temple College.

The distribution of students among the various institutions offering supplementary instruction is indicated in the following table, which gives approximately the numbers of both sexes attending continuation schools in the Borough of Manhattan alone, during the year 1903-4:

Public evening high schools	9,323
Public evening elementary schools	46,141
Cooper Union	2,672
Society of Mechanics & Tradesmen	588
New York Trade School	560
Parish Trade & Industrial Schools conducted by St. George's, St. Bartholomew's, Trinity, and other parishes	2,000
Young Men's Christian Association	1,952
Young Men's Hebrew Association	402
Young Women's Christian Association	1,342
Hebrew Technical School	40

The general work of the elementary continuation school consists of reading spelling, meaning and use of words, composition, arithmetic, penmanship, geography, bookkeeping, hygiene, physical training, American history, and civics. Parallel with this, there is the technical work of the elementary trade school. The evening trade school conducted by St. George's Church teaches plumbing, carpentry, drawing, manual training, free-hand drawing. This school has been in existence since 1892, and now enrolls 280 boys. It meets two evenings a week from 7:30 to 9:00 o'clock, and charges no tuition; but requires that all boys be members of St. George's Sunday school. "We do not claim," says the principal, "that we can turn out skilled mechanics within three years; but we claim that our boys when they graduate and leave us, have received sufficient training to enable them to choose intelligently the trade they would like to master."

Elementary continuation work is designed in general for boys not under fourteen years of age; those younger being provided for in the day elementary schools. The pupils in such schools fall into three main groups: First, those whose early education has been neglected, and who would find themselves handicapped in life by reason of ignorance of the ordinary tools of their business or trade. Secondly foreigners who have come to this country almost, if not quite, ignorant of the language. These are unable to get on at all without the knowledge of English. In large cities they flock to the evening schools where they not only receive instruction and drill in the practical use

of English, but where in many cases they come under a sympathetic teacher, oftentimes one of their own nationality. Such a teacher gives them advice, helps them to keep up courage, and where they have fallen on hard lines, even treats them once in a while to a substantial meal. It is interesting to note what these foreign students of English want to be taught how to say. One asks "How can I say in English 'I want a raise in wages'?" Another, "I want to learn to say 'That is not just'."

I may digress here to remark that it is difficult for mere figures to convey to those outside the schools the nature and extent of the problem presented by unrestricted immigration. I know a school in which ninety per cent of the children hear no English in their homes, and seventy-five per cent of the children are foreign born. A kindergartner on the lower east side took a census of the children in her kindergarten with a view of ascertaining what different nationalities were represented. "Will all the Italian children rise," said the teacher. A considerable group arose. "Now, will all the Chinese children rise." There were two Chinese children. "Are there any Armenian children?" Two Armenians rose. German, French, Arabian, and Bulgarian children were also identified, the total number of nationalities being fourteen. Finally the teacher asked "Now, will all the little Americans rise,"—in response to which *two little negro children* stood up for their native land. They were the sole representatives of "pure American blood" present in that kindergarten.

The third class of those attending elementary continuation schools are those boys between fourteen and sixteen years of age who, being engaged in some employment during the day, are obliged under the new compulsory attendance law to attend some continuation school for not less than six hours each week for sixteen weeks per year, The effect of this (New York State) law upon the public evening elementary schools is indicated by the following figures. During the season of 1902-03, before the law went into effect, there were in the city of New York enrolled in the junior department 8,743 boys between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, the average attendance being 2,238 In the following year, after the law had gone into effect, the enrollment increased over thirty-eight per cent and the average attendance nearly seventy-four per cent.

But without formal regulations there is a strong pressure on a lad to get all the education he can, simply because education has a money value. A boy for example, may read, and see graphically plotted (as in *St. Nicholas* for Nov., 1903), that the average earning power of a laborer having only an elementary school education is $10.20 per week and that he reaches the limit of advancement at the age of 22; while the same laborer with no longer schooling but with some shop training, may hope to earn $15.80 per week, and defer his limit of advancement till the age of 24. But if the same laborer with the same schooling in the common branches, completes a trade course, his wages may rise to $24 per week, or higher, and his limit be deferred to 35 or later. And finally the average wage of the graduates of technical schools is $43 at the age of 32, with a strong rising tendency still unchecked and no limit in sight.

A striking instance of the way the American boy responds to these influences came under my own observation during the recent millionaires' panic, when brokers' offices were laying off men in great numbers. It is usually considered hard lines to be laid off; but one of the boys who had just lost a $15-a-week job, determined to turn his extremity into an opportunity, and at once joined a night school, paying $25 in tuition fees the very first day of his freedom.

The higher work of the continuation schools is open to boys and young men over sixteen, some of the members en-

rolled in the newer kind of courses being over forty years of age, and still calling themselves young men. The curriculum of an evening high school having a general course is like that of an ordinary high school. From this type of school must be distinguished the technical institute. This does not undertake to teach a trade, and in some countries is forbidden to do so; but it demonstrates the use of tools, machines and machinery, and teaches the theoretical knowledge necessary in carrying on a trade or other technical pursuit. Trade schools, on the other hand, are intended to teach trades and to replace and improve upon the apprentice system. Such schools have the incidental advantage of enabling a young man to determine quickly whether or not he has any aptitude for a certain trade. In a school one may learn as much on this point in a month as in a much longer time in a shop. The trades taught in the New York Trade School are blacksmithing, bricklaying, cornice building, electrical engineering, fresco painting, house painting, pattern making, plastering, plumbing, printing, sign painting, steam and hot water fitting. Nearly half of the total enrollment is in the one department of plumbing.

Among all the forms of continuation school work, none is more interesting at the present time than the evening schools of the Young Men's Christian Association. It is fair to say that the Association is on the fighting line of the evening school work. The truth of this claim appears in the fact that the new courses and new subjects offered in continuation school work during the past three years have been almost without exception conceived and carried through by the Y. M. C. A. The reason for this originality is evident. The Y. M. C. A. offers no free courses. It not only charges a tuition fee, but a membership fee in addition. With development in efficiency and attractiveness of the public evening schools and of free endowed schools, the Y. M. C. A. found it increasingly difficult to sustain such of its evening classes as were in competition with these free classes. The remedy was obvious: *branch out in new and original lines.* The result of following this principle was remarkable, both in the number of new classes planned and in the numbers of young men to whom these new classes appealed. The West Side branch of the Y. M. C. A. in the City of New York furnishes the most striking illustration. During the past three years it has originated and successfully launched courses in the following subjects: steel construction, art in house furnishing, steam engineering, business economy, plan reading and estimating, real estate, automobile engineering; with courses in modern publishing and printing, in investments and in other lines, projected for the future. On the strength of these classes the enrolment in the educational department rose from 700 to over 1,600. The automobile class began with over 200 members and a waiting list. The class in real estate had 240 members the first season. The class in art in house furnishing strongly appealed to the higher class of buyers and salesmen, and developed in its second year into three classes instead of one. "The class gave us not only skill and taste, but higher ideals in work," said one of the members. The class in business economy enrolled a majority of managers and members of firms. Expert instructors of the highest class were secured for all these classes. The tuition fees were correspondingly high, being from $25 to $35 per man, exclusive of membership fees in the Association. It is significant that through such special classes 600 or 700 men should have been led to join the Young Men's Christian Association and thereby participate to a greater or less extent in the social and other privileges of that organization.

This interesting development has given rise to some questioning. I have heard it objected that it was not the province of

the Association to offer practical courses in such subjects or even to offer advanced courses in any subjects. "This is a Young Men's *Christian* Association," said one objector. "It is proper for us to teach arithmetic, bookkeeping, and stenography; but I fail to see any Christianity in trigonometry." But why should it be any less Christian to teach trigonometry than arithmetic? The point of the objection may have been, that it is proper for us to teach elementary branches and thus help on his feet a young follow who is down and unable to rise unless thus helped; but it is not proper to offer educational advantages, even when they are fully paid for, to young men who are already up—some of them receiving handsome salaries—and who wish to increase their efficiency and earning power. This objection evidently reflects the old prejudice against higher education to which we have already referred. In this form the objection has even less force than in the other forms, since there is no question of public support; the young man pays his own way. The evening school reveals to him his need and his opportunity, and helps him to idealize his work.

Another objection is, that courses in automobile engineering, in business economy, and in real estate are courses which men pursue in order, primarily, to increase their power either of earning money or of having a good time, and hence they are not worthy of being called educational. This objection harks back to the ancient conception of abstract culture and formal discipline. It used to be thought that if a subject were palpably useful, it could not be truly educative; just as it used to be thought that if a young man attended school for the purpose of increasing his earning power, his motive was lower than if he attended school for the sole purpose of self-culture. "The contempt in which cultivated persons have habitually held the useful or utilitarian in education" (thus writes President Eliot in the *Atlantic Monthly* of November, 1903) "has probably been due to the association of the useful with the selfish or mercenary. Now, the nineteenth century gradually developed a new conception of the useful as the serviceable, to one's self through others, and to others through one's self. . . . In this view, the more productive the labor of children can be made, whether at school or at home, the better for the children. Any employment for children which enables them to produce something wanted by others affords training in altruism, and is therefore idealistic or humanistic, if the motive be made plain and be enforced, and if the operation itself afford either mental or bodily training."

In accordance with this conception of the useful as being the serviceable, it is easy to justify the offering in continuation schools of all the subjects hereinbefore mentioned, and of many more. In fact, if we accept the principle that the useful is the serviceable, and that, other things being equal, the man who does the more efficient work and incidentally gets the higher pay is doing the greater service to mankind, where shall the line be drawn? Any course in any subject which enables a man to do his work more efficiently and more successfully; or that enables him to secure promotion from a lower to a higher form of work, increases his capacity for service. And such a subject is worthy in the highest sense of being termed educational. If this broad principle could once be fully grasped, it is impossible to predict the immense increase in the number and variety, in the attractiveness and practicality, of the courses that would be offered, chiefly in continuation schools, to the American boy whose days of regular schooling are over.

But education aims at something more than mere efficiency in work. The membership of the automobile class was almost equally divided between intending chauffeurs who wished to make a living by their new knowledge and skill, and automobile owners, many of whom intended

to use their machines for recreation and pleasure. It is as important for the one class to avail themselves of the instruction as it is for the other. There is no discount on play, and there is no discount on courses intended to widen the interest and heighten the tide of life after business hours.

Experience has shown that no system of supplementary education can be successfully developed without regard to the following principles: First, the work must be adapted to the inclination, the interest, or the necessities of the pupils for whom the work is intended. It would not be proper to offer a course in Danish or in irrigation in New York City; or a course in weaving and spinning in San Francisco; or a course of business economy in a farming district. The course must be adapted to the locality. Within limits, also, the course must be adapted to the felt practical needs of those to whom it is offered. A course in constitutional history has failed in a Y. M. C. A., where a course in real estate which involved a stiff, technical lecture on the history of land tenure was a great success. An audience of 400 real estate brokers listened to extracts from Stubbs which would have emptied the hall of any class of similar men in any other subject but real estate. A course in history is, for practical men, a course in abstract culture. A course in real estate, involving all the history you please, is a course in concrete practicality.

In the second place it must be remembered that the more the social instincts are appealed to in any continuation course, the more successful, generally speaking, will be that course. A fine teacher of civics who calls his class a class and treats them as such, will score a less distinct success than a man who organizes his pupils into a club, and leads them to learn civics through the conduct of their own organization. Classes composed of men of similar trades or callings are more successful because of the social element involved. Correspondence courses, which are more valuable for trained and disciplined students than for the immature, fail at this point, among others. A student must indeed be possessed of a high degree of application and continuity who can dispense with the vivifying presence of a personal teacher and of fellow members of his class. The high mortality in most correspondence courses is proof of this serious defect.

One has only to compare the opportunities for supplementary education for young people and adults which existed twenty, or even ten, or even five years ago with those existing at the present time, to be aware that a wonderful change has taken place. We have without doubt entered upon a new era. The possibilities of supplementary education are only beginning to be realized. The system, as it exists, provides for young and old, for male and female, for those wishing increased knowledge, and those seeking technical skill, for those who have tried and failed, and for those who wish to multiply their successes. The movement for opening wide the doors of churches and of schools to the people from the surrounding tenements is significant. Instead of opening the churches to the people one day in seven or even parts of seven days, it is proposed to treat the church as one great social settlement. So also with the schools. The waste involved in allowing an investment of millions of dollars to lie idle nineteen hours out of every twenty-four, and three months in every twelve, is apparent to anyone, especially in view of the conditions prevailing in every tenement house. In every great city abreast of the times, the school buildings are now thrown open to the people, in the evening and in vacations, for lectures, educational clubs, and social activities. There are school buildings in the city of New York in which 2,000 people, old and young, are engaged, five nights in the week, in educative activities. In this way the school

has taken a hint from the social settlement.

No one who contemplates the possibilities of the continuation school movement, can fail to be inspired with enthusiasm. But it would be a mistake to suppose that anything more than a mere beginning has been made. There are today in the United States hundreds of thousands of young men and women who are imperfectly educated, whether for efficiency in work, or efficiency in play. In every one of these young men and women there could be developed, by the use of the proper means, higher capacities of social service and of personal satisfaction in life. It probably never will come to pass that even a majority of American boys and girls will be able to secure a complete education in regular schools, colleges, universities, and professional schools. But in the continuation school, there are boundless possibilities. The great Chautauqua movement itself is an illustration of the working out on a splendid scale of one phase of this idea. There are other phases. To develop these is a task which may well enlist the efforts and the enthusiasm of all who believe that education is preparation for complete living, and that there can be nothing but incomplete living without a completed education.

Nature Study

Beginning Bird Study

By Anna Botsford Comstock

Bureau of Nature Study, Cornell University.

BIRD study is of the utmost importance from every point of view. First, birds are of the greatest economic importance and whoever owns a farm, garden, or orchard must learn to know the birds and to deal with them intelligently if he would reap from his possessions the highest possible financial returns. Second, birds are most interesting and delightful creatures to study as they have attained a degree of development in their habits especially as to migration and nest building, which seems to us little short of the miraculous. Third, many of them are exquisite in color, graceful in form, and their songs delight the ear and cheer the spirit. It is, therefore, a great addition to the interest and pleasure gained from walks in the fields and woods, if we know by sight and song a number of these little friends in feathers.

One of the ideals to be attained by the teacher of Nature Study is to cultivate the child's interest in the life of the world at large by studying at first what is most familiar in his every day life. The first Nature Study lesson beginning at the point of the child's greatest interest should be like a pebble dropped in the pond and create wider and ever widening waves of interest. For this reason the greater the interest and pleasure of the first lesson the wider the results; therefore, birds which charm even the youngest

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This is the seventh of a series of home Nature Study Lessons for the parents and teachers prepared by the Cornell Bureau of Nature Study. Lessons for children of the Chautauqua Junior Naturalist clubs will appear each month in *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, New York. The following articles have already appeared in THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Leaves, October; Seed Distribution, November; Evergreens I, December; Evergreens II, January; Tree Study in Winter, March; The Cow, April.

Photo. by Verne Morton.

A STUDY IN CHICKEN TABLE MANNERS

child offer a most felicitous introduction to the study of Nature's ways.

One of the mistakes often made in beginning the study of birds with small children, is in placing stress upon learning by sight and name as many species of birds as possible. The young child is more interested in what a bird does and how it does it than in knowing the names of many birds. To start a child in bird study and teach him that the bird is especially fitted for its life and that its form is determined by what it does, there is no better subject for study than the chicken and the duckling or gosling. These are close at hand and may be studied in the home or in the schoolroom, and by beginning thus and learning about the forms and habits of these interesting domestic birds, the child gets an understanding of the needs and of the lives of other birds.

For the following lesson a chick should be studied by the pupils, letting them answer the questions after they have had time to observe. The ideal way for conducting this lesson would be to have a chick in a box in the schoolroom so that the pupils might see it during recess, the lines of their observation being directed by the teacher's questions. A chick a day or two old is best, and it should be kept three or four days in the room.

To be sure that the pupils of the Home Nature Study class know all that the chicken may teach in beginning bird study, I will ask you to make the following observations:

1. Where did the chick come from? What is the shape of an egg? Which end of the egg did the chick break through? Does the chick ever come out of the egg head down?
2. Of the inner parts of the egg there are two, the white and the yolk. What is the use of each in developing the chicken?
3. In a hard boiled egg there is a cavity at one end. Which end? Why is this cavity? What does it do for the chick?
4. How long was the egg in the incubator or under the hen before it hatched? Why will eggs hatch in an incubator as well as under a hen?
5. Did the chick get out of the egg by its own exertion or did the hen assist it?
6. Look at the bill of a chick less than a week old, and note the little tooth on the tip of the upper part of the beak. What is this for? Is it present on older chickens?
7. What is the color of the chick above and below? What markings has it? Can you tell by the color of the chick what will be its color when it is grown?
8. What is the chick covered with? How does this covering differ from that of the hen?
9. Why should the chick just out of the egg be so pretty and downy, while the young robin just hatched is so bare and ugly?
10. How does the young chick get its food? How does the young robin get its food?
11. Describe the eye of the chick; can it see straight ahead as we do? Why does it turn its head to one side and then the other when it looks at you?
12. Why should the young chick be able to see and the young robin be blind?
13. What does the chick eat and where does it get its food?

14. Describe the beak and tell how it is adapted to secure food.
15. Does the chick chew its food before swallowing it? Why?
16. How does the chick drink? Why does it drink this way?
17. Where are the chick's ears? Does it learn readily certain sounds so that it comes to its food when you call, "chickie, chickie, chickie?"
18. What sounds does the old hen make which the chicks obey?
19. Can the chicken smell? What makes you think so?
20. Can you see the beginning of the comb? What is the comb for?
21. Describe the chicken's foot and leg. Describe the toes. Which is the longest? Make a picture of a chicken's track.
22. Sketch a bit of the chick's leg showing the arrangement of the scales. What are these scales for? What are the chick's feet used for besides to walk upon? Does the chick or hen walk, hop, or waddle, when it goes rapidly?
23. Do the chicken's feet correspond to our feet or to our hands? What part of the chicken's anatomy corresponds to our arms and hands?
24. Can the little chick fly? Has it wings? Why can it not fly? Does it need to fly to get its food? Would the young robin if it had no parents need to fly to get its food?
25. Why can the hen fly better than the chick?
26. Can the hen fly like the robin or the crow? Why does she not need to fly like them?
27. How far can a hen fly? Why can she not fly farther? Why does she need to fly at all? Compare the size of the hen's wings with her body, and the size of the robin's wings with its body to answer this question.
28. Has the young chick any tail? Will it ever have any? Why does the young chick not need a tail? What use is the tail to the grown fowl?
29. Where does the chick sleep at night? Where will it sleep when it is grown up?
30. Where will it put its head while sleeping after it is grown up? Why does it not do that now?
31. Did you ever see a partridge? Compare the partridge with a domestic fowl in order to understand how the latter might live in a wild state.
32. How does the young partridge escape when enemies are around? Where does the partridge stay in the winter? On what does it live? Where do our hens stay in the winter? If the partridge does not need to go south in winter why not? If it did need to go south, how would it get there?
33. Does the chick try to preen its feathers? If so how?
34. What noises does the chick make? Does it open its beak when it peeps? How many emotions does the chicken express through its voice?
35. *A lesson in bird language:* The fowls are among the most accomplished linguists of the bird world even though they have little fame as musicians. However, I have always held that the song of the hen when she strolls about on a bit of bare ground during a sunny day of early spring is as happy a sound as can be found anywhere in nature. The study of the language of the chicken yard is good training to the ear and leads to an understanding of bird talk. The hen and the rooster express by voice at least ten different mental conditions or emotions with perfect distinctness. What are these and how are they expressed?

STUDY OF A DUCKLING

Last summer I had an interesting experience of caring for a time for some incubator hatched ducklings; and for those who claim that the mother bird teaches the young nothing, I would advise the study of incubator orphans. In early years I had cared for ducklings which were brought up by a hen, an obviously well meaning but ill adapted stepmother. But even the ducklings mothered by a hen were so far in advance in intelligence of the poor institutionized crea-

Photo. by Verne Morton.

WHO SEES ANY YOUNG PARTRIDGES?

do with the flight of the bird? How does the bird lift itself in this way?

54. If the bird flies by pressing the wing against the air on the down stroke, why does it not push itself downwards with its wings on the up stroke?

55. What is the shape and arrangement of the feathers so as to avoid pushing the bird back to earth when it lifts its wings?

TAIL FEATHER

56. Is the quill of the tail feather curved? If so, is the curve like that in the wing feather?

57. Are the barbs on each side of the quill equal in length and similar in arrangement?

58. What is the use of the tail to the bird when flying?

59. What other uses than that of flight has the tail feather in rooster, chimney swift, fly-catcher?

OTHER QUESTIONS ON FEATHERS

60. What is the general difference in color of plumage between the hen and rooster, the turkey gobbler and the turkey hen, the drake and the duck, the male and female oriole?

61. Why is this difference? What is the purpose of feather ornamentation?

62. Why should not the female be brightly colored as well as the male?

63. Name all the uses of feathers.

64. What is a pin feather?

65. How does a feather shed water? How does a hen oil her feathers?

In Poor Man's England

By William H. Allen

HOW sycophantic and inconsistent we tourists are! Like the historians we love fragments whose identity is submerged in doubt. A complete building is disdained, while the site of a structure that *was*, a heap of stone which Baedeker calls a castle, a candy store once patronized by a poet, or a picture so wretched that no one ever claimed authorship, excites rapturous applause. Coursing about Europe to glean a straw here and there, we are ignoring vast fields of living green."

As can be readily imagined, this challenge came like a thunderbolt from a clear sky to one who was thoroughly enamored of the chain of historic monuments beginning at Chester and about to lose itself in the numerous attractions of London. It had seemed perfect pleasure to wheel through rural England and Wales, discussing with my sympathetic companion the decadence of Rome, the economic and moral programs of the church to which we owe England's abbeys and cathedrals or again, the peculiar circumstances which developed in medieval England the guild and the narrow crooked streets all leading toward the guild hall and the market. We had fought lustily to hold numerous towns for Charles I, and had explained, each to the other repeatedly, the strategic location of the old castle at Bridgnorth, Shrewsbury, Kenilworth, or Warwick. In fact, despite grazing herds and poppy fields, we had quite successfully ridden our wheels through medieval forests or up medieval streams, through armored ranks, into dungeons and banquet halls, Elizabethan gardens and love bowers. But as you see, the practical democratic Americanism of my friend still lay somewhere near the surface, and, as might have been expected, broke out with unabated vigor on another side.

"The Englishman we pass by so disdainfully, is he less picturesque than the Briton or Norman simply because more distinct? Why wait to study him until

he is dead and buried and his industrial system decayed, until only monuments of stone or rhyme remain to suggest his characteristics? Is it not humiliating that we understand the cathedral better than we understand the man who cares for it? What good that we picture a castle in advance when we are unable to anticipate the interview with the old fishmonger near by who protests that the Norman ruin dates back as far as the troublesome days of his father's boyhood. What a shame that in Birmingham we listened so indifferently to the program for municipal control whose realization is an event more startling and revolutionary than Rome's invasion of Britain!"

Suffice it to say Shinn's protest made a deep impression. We thought out a system of education that should prepare tourists for something more than skeletons and fossils of a civilization long outgrown, teaching them to go to England for English life not Norman ruins, to Germany for German life not Italian art, to France for French life, not Parisian folly-fed shops. We agreed that, after all, the actual curio is not the ruin —'tis

"The dark, obscure, mysterious human heart,
Where fierce tides ebb and flow forevermore,
Whence hopes and dreams and joys forever part.
To ruin or haven on some unknown shore."

We determined to look about us and try to find the English workman, the self-styled Poor Man, to see what he thought, how he lived, what he had compelled the state or municipality to do for him and what he was doing for himself.

We made the acquaintance of John Burns, the Poor Man's Representative both in Parliament and in the London County Council. Of Celtic blood and temperament, he thinks in the language of the overworked laboring man who feels first and thinks afterwards. Epigram follows metaphor, satire mingles with eulogy, egoism with socialism, but John Burns is always honest, and always just John Burns. In the public library of his own district, Battersea, he showed us with tender pride an unmistakable sketch of himself underneath which is written "Battersea." Unpolished in speech as in dress, he has twice offended an American philantrropist, once by pointing at him in the gallery of the Commons as the arch enemy of Labor, and later by refusing an introduction. The tale he can tell yet with the same satisfaction with which he remembers having said during his visit in America, "Chicago is a pocket edition of hell, or if that be exaggerated, hell is a pocket edition of Chicago." Yet this man who can dash a cup of beer from the lips of a fellow laborer to clinch an argument for total abstinence, removes his hat in St. Stephen's Hall, so much does he revere even the stones and arches where representative government had its birth. He extols the municipal socialism of London as evidence of a more momentous social revolution than that which gave the English nobility Magna Charta. "Better one year in the London County Council than a cycle in the Cathay of party politics, the Commons." "Magna Charta protected nobility against kings but municipal socialism has given the Poor Man dwellings, parks, public baths, sporting grounds, technical schools, lodging-houses, refectories, markets, day nurseries, wash-houses, schools for crippled children, dispensaries, concerts." Later we learned from the Poor Man's Critic of the irrepressible conflict between the economic and educational motives of the London County Council, and heard, too, the prophecy that the Council is now erecting dwellings, etc., which thirty years from now will be nuisances.

We became acquainted with the Poor Man's Propagandist who disseminates leaflets at the rate of three for a cent and pamphlets for two cents each, which tell of rights guaranteed by law. There is Mr. Sidney Webb of the Fabian Society, one of whose pamphlets shows the "Difficulties of Individualism" and points to the progress of the past fifteen years as evidence of the beneficent working of homeo-

what Burns calls the fourth right of woman—"dear admiration"—by flattery and a buttonhole of heather.

It is said that the farthing was invented to make it possible for the Scotchman to be generous. The following observations of present day Scotch thrift seem to illustrate the epigram. In Glasgow certain lodging houses and the cheapest rented "houses" or apartments are subject to night inspection by "the sanitary." In one lodging house we found two very large women holding to each other for dear life, edgewise on a cot really too small for even one. The fright and anger of the proprietress of the lodging place brought from the women the admission that they wanted to save the tuppence necessary for a second cot. In visting 150 "ticketed houses," *i. e.*, those rooms or sets of rooms having less than 2,000 cubic feet, we found thirty cases of overcrowding. These do not include the numerous houses where the count showed one baby in excess of the law's maximum and the mother's sworn total, for "the sanitary" accepted the mother's "Oh! yes! the bairn." But there were thirty violations where either from economy or poverty there were too many adults,—now a girl of sixteen, dragged from under the bed by the ankle, again a couple taken from a closet, or perhaps "just a visitor" or "my son's family" who dropped in for the night. Another kind of economy we found in the Jewish quarter, where the whole family would be sleeping overcrowded in one room, thus saving the other rooms for business or company. Still another Scotch economy, public and personal, is illustrated in the public swimming baths where first and second class bathers use the same water; the first while it is fresh and presumably clean; the second after these adjectives no longer apply.

Not every tourist can accompany sanitary police on their night rounds, but all can at least learn the social significance of this invasion of the homes of poverty. They are a part of the "best governed city in the world," the model of municipal socialism. The poor are made to feel in almost every hour of the day that public and private capital is ministering to their uplifting. Even the widower is subject for commiseration and may take his children to a widowers' lodging house and its foster-mothers. The working men and women of this great manufacturing city have deliberately chosen to exclude advertisements from their street cars and have substituted in their place the ancient coat of arms with the modern motto, "Let Glasgow Flourish." This motto used to have in addition "By the Preaching of the Word." All these facts the tourist can learn from Baedeker, but he cannot understand them until some living Scotchman has told what they mean to ***him***, what the religious revolution that has caused the shortening of the motto, what the civic religion that puts public utilities in the hands of the city, and why the best citizens give honest devoted service to public affairs.

Was it not worth while to bring out the Scot's reverence for educational institutions from living Scots rather than from dead commentators? My letter of introduction was signed by the Mayor of Philadelphia and described me as "Fellow in Political Science, studying sanitary administration." The Englishmen had introduced me as an American wishing to learn English methods of administration or, as one London officer put it, "Has come all the way from America to learn *our* sanitary methods." But the Scotch officer almost invariably introduced me as "Fellow at the University of Pennsylvania." The Irish instinct, by the way, found still another variation, "Who has a letter of introduction from the Mayor of Philadelphia."

It was in Ireland that we shied far from the sycophantic Baedeker and his kin. We went to the theater and sang choruses with the democratic audience of Dublin and Cork. We saw the sanitary inspector helpless before the blarney of delinquent

householders and careless housewives who were keeping pigs contrary to Dublin regulations. 'Twas there we encountered upon country roads the police, whose magnificent physique and artistic, comfortable homes proved that the Irish-American's pride in police clothes springs from a meritorious ambition.

Everywhere we saw at first hand the genius which has led the Irish immigrant on the tortuous mountain climb from street-cleaning to school teaching and politics. In one city we were told by the chief officer what he had done for his city. Later a deputy apologized for the title "deputy," but admitted that upon him fell the responsibility for administering their progressive code. Finally in the afternoon we were turned over to the fourth man whose title failed to convey any adequate impression of the city's dependence upon his services.

At a city on the northwest coast we attended a meeting of the city fathers. Of the twenty-four fathers, by the way, ten had returned from America. There were several details up for discussion, the weightiest being the wages which should be paid a certain janitor. There was a party division: Irish home rule was apostrophized; the janitor was congratulated upon his ancestry; the dignity of the office extolled, and in all some ten grandiloquent speeches were made. After the debate was over—it was an occasion which Bourke Cockran's address on Charity would have fitted exactly—Shinn leaned over and said, "If we were at opera bouffe wouldn't we say this was exaggerated?"

The fuchsias on the road from Bantry to Glengariff cannot compare in beauty with those which cover squalid cabins at Killarney, while squalor itself takes on new meaning when the American finds such welcome from discouraged mothers whose only dream is that their sons and daughters can go to our land, there to prove that Ireland's poverty is not a matter of blood, but of opportunity.

True, 'tis interesting to see the cow lying in the entry to a cottage at Bantry, blocking three doors. These sights are picturesque yet not half so picturesque as country places recently revived, enriched, and beautified by the dairy business. There isn't a building in Ireland, whether castle or cathedral, as typical and soul satisfying as the farmer who entertained us with explanations why he would not use a certain forty acre plot of ground. His great-grandfather had reached this forty by a path over a neighbor's land; so had his grandfather and his father. But the great-grandson's neighbor shut up the path; our friend went to law; his "——— lawyer sold him out" and the "forty would never be touched until the path was opened." The Giant's Causeway did not tell its larger story until we heard at a little town a few miles away a Presbyterian pastor's sermon on "Self Respect." I've always been grateful too for the man from Limerick who claimed he went north every year to keep up his belief that South Ireland might one day be prosperous, and I agree with his declaration, "The Government could well afford to send all of South Ireland up north every year just to show them what comfort and prosperity mean."

While speaking of self respect let me recall an evidence of it which explains some of the Irishman's tenacity to home rule. At Killarney we met a jolly, vain Irishman from Belfast who had a hundred reasons why his heavy home-made wheel was better than our light American products. We started up the Gap of Dunlough and were soon at a furious rate which our friend said was "spoiling all the scenery." When I asked Shinn why in the world we were taking such a pace he said, "S-h-h, we're giving him a taste of home rule!" Yet that same egotistical Irishman risked his dear wheel and his life to avoid running over me when I paid the penalty for trying to coast down the rocky Gap, while he candidly admitted the next morning that the superiority of Irish

home rule wheels was in coasting not climbing.

This is not a brief for the study of sociology while visiting foreign lands. Vitality not sociology is our chief interest. Civilization is greater than history and art galleries. Museums and cathedrals are beautiful in proportion as they speak to the soul of the beholder. Their message is most vivid to those travelers who learn enough of the living, even in hastening through a foreign country on a summer's vacation, to feel for the soul of the people who once originated and now preserve time's monuments. For the large number of earnest students who plan to travel abroad, it may not be amiss to have suggested a course of inquiry that will make the tattered ruin a vital part of present day struggles. It is stimulating to one's patriotism to find Longfellow in the Poet's Corner, but it is a greater inspiration to find in the great cathedral one's self and one's faith. A ride through White Chapel leaves pleasant memories, but the picture is truer and more beautiful when supplemented with the memory of a working man's club in that same overcrowded section of London, where a chance British acquaintance bares his gray head and shows the American the club's two heroes—Lincoln and Washington.

CLEAN CITY CLUBS WORTH COPYING

The Chicago branch of the Woman's Outdoor department of the American Civic Association last year established two "clean city clubs," planted ornamentally the grounds of three social settlements, conducted children's gardens at two other social settlements, awakened interest in Arbor Day, helped care for one of the neglected small parks and placed on a permanent basis the planting done at the various school yards during previous years. Inquiries regarding the work done by the two "clean city clubs,"—one composed of children and the other of young girls,—have come from every part of the United States. The president, Mrs. William Frederick Grower, 964 Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, is always willing to answer any inquiries.

The children's gardens were a source of great joy during the summer months to hundreds of children in the crowded foreign districts. Permanent ornamental planting has been done at the Chicago Commons, Settlement House and Eli Bates House, three of the largest social settlements in the city, hardy trees, shrubs and grass being used. Bulbs have been planted for early spring blooming. At the Eli Bates House, situated in a gas house district where because of escaping gas nothing ever blossomed, the new planting done the past year blossomed, to the delight of the residents and the highly appreciative neighbors. One of the school yards, that of the Haven school, situated in the "dead line" district, where little is supposed to grow, had a fine showing all summer of pretty green grass, fair looking shrubs, one lone tree and many blossoms. Last fall the yard was fully planted in bulbs, and a brave showing is expected in the spring.

At the John M. Smyth school is the garden for dependent and deficient children. This little garden had hard work to exist and lived only through the generosity of the principal and some of the teachers. It was given only one-half of the back yard of the school and the other half devoted to an ash pile and to the delivery of coal to the engine room. When the attention of the school board was called to this it freely gave up that half of the yard also for the planting of flowers. The women put in black dirt and supplied plants for the little beds. One of the teachers secured seeds from Washington and the garden was a thing of beauty in an almost impossible situation, a joy all summer to the enthusiastic little workers. The garden is considered by the teachers of this school a great educational help and worth more than books to the children. Two hundred assorted bulbs were planted this fall and the children are looking

eagerly to the time for the bright faced flowers.

The organization of an American Bureau of Industrial Research "for the scientific investigation of economic and industrial problems of the United States," is an indication of a departure from the old off-hand way of explaining and judging labor controversies. Class prejudices, not facts—at least not facts seen in their historical evolution—too often determine the public's attitude toward labor questions. The purpose of the American Bureau of Industrial Research is to make painstaking investigations and publish a work of several volumes entitled "The History of Industrial Democracy in the United States." This will be virtually a history of the United States viewed from its industrial rather than its political aspects. By the light it sheds upon the history and development of labor conditions it is expected a much better understanding of the existing labor situation may be obtained.

Professor John R. Commons is to be the chief investigator and author, (readers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN will recall Mr. Commons' valuable articles on the "Racial Composition of the American People" in this magazine) and his researches will require several years, even with the assistance of a number of economists and historians, notably Professor Richard T. Ely. Between thirty and forty thousand dollars have been contributed to the expenses of the undertaking by several gentlemen interested in the subject, and in addition the Wisconsin Historical Library and the John Crerar Library of Chicago are assisting in the work by making extensive collections of historical material.

Minnesota, by her peculiar form of Australian ballot has contributed to the cause of independence in voting. Every officer voted for must be specially designated, requiring an affirmative selection by the voter, It is impossible to cast a straight party ballot by a single designatory mark. The names of all candidates are placed under captions indicating the offices for which they have been severally nominated, and immediately following each name is that of the nominating party. The order of arrangement under the captions is determined by the date of filing the certificates of nomination. Independent candidates are given place upon the official ballot in the order of the filing petitions signed by a specified number of qualified voters. In marking his ballot the voter must, of necessity, read the list of candidates and exercise selection.

FROM THE FIELD

New Zealand has extended its government insurance plans to fire insurance as well as life insurance.

The Merchants Association Review of San Francisco effectively advocates a door-bell campaign in behalf of clean city government.

The National Municipal League accepted the invitation of the City Club, the Women's Municipal League, and the League for Political Education to hold its eleventh annual meeting in New York City, April 25-28.

In Grand Rapids, Michigan, a live weekly paper published in the interest of public affairs is being edited by Delos F. Wilcox. It is called the *Civic News* and is full of information valuable to all persons interested in Civic Betterment.

The United States consul at Vienna has reported that the school authorities there have decided to introduce a course of instruction in the public schools in periods of five weeks for the special purpose of overcoming the defects in speech of children who stutter.

The Improvement Association of Oak Park, Illinois, is a delegate organization from section organizations by blocks or streets. Each section organizes its local work as it sees fit and each member contributes twenty-five cents a year for the support of the main association.

Persons interested in the child labor problem should know that a comprehensive report of the subject of "Child Labor in the United States" forms the bulk of Bulletin Number 52 of the Bureau of Labor, May, 1904. One hundred and fifty-two pages are given to the report prepared by Hannah R. Sewell. Ph. D. The states of Pennsylvania, New York, Massachusetts, Illinois, North Carolina, South Carolina, New Jersey, Georgia, Maryland, Wisconsin, Rhode Island, Missouri, and Alabama were the basis of the investigation.

A brochure on the subject of "Art as an Educational Force and a Source of Wealth," effectively illustrated, has been issued by the National Sculpture Society of New York. The society recommends that "by proper enactments

ten per cent of the total cost of every public building should be expended in public art, sculpture, and painting, and that of the total cost of municipal government a definite, even though small (say one-half to one per cent) appropriation be devoted to beautifying the city by suitable landscape and monumental treatment of its parks and streets."

The Chicago Woman's Club has a neighborhood center committee which is working for the coöperation of local Improvement Associations, and neighborhood improvement with the school as a social center. There are seventeen local Improvement Associations represented in a league and there is an almost continuous chain of Improvement Associations covering the territory in Chicago along the entire lake front. Some $50,000 has been raised by seventeen Improvement Associations chiefly for the purpose of keeping the streets clean, the finances of the city being inadequate to cover this work at present.

An attractive pamphlet from the Committee on Civic Improvement of the Decatur Chamber of Commerce, Decatur, Illinois, should do a good deal "For a More Beautiful Decatur," which is both its title and its purpose in being. In a few brief pages it points out the benefits and pleasure to be got from a beautiful city and offers some condensed rules and suggestions for the improvement of yards and gardens. A very considerable list of prizes is offered to those, who, during the spring and summer, accomplish the best results in yard, garden, and street improvement. Perhaps the best feature of this prize list is the fact that ten special prizes are given by business houses in the city. People now see that from a merely business standpoint an attractive city is a good investment.

A municipal house-cleaning day has been inaugurated with success by the Ashland branch of the Woman's Outdoor department of the American Civic Association, and also by the city improvement society of Lincoln, Nebraska. Agitation of the subject in the newspapers was the first step taken to arouse interest. The next step was for the mayor to issue a proclamation setting aside such a day. In Lincoln two days were thus devoted to the work. In Ashland the school superintendent dismissed the schools for the day in order that the children might assist in the work, and the president of the board of health furnished free wagons for the disposal of garbage and rubbish. The work of cleaning back yards and alleys and vacant lots was entered into with a will, and it was admitted that Ashland had never worn so clean a dress before. The health officers reported a great improvement in the sanitary conditions of the city.

The annual report of the South Side Improvement Association of Chicago is always suggestive. The Year Book issued for 1904 contains a graphic illustration of the gradual evolution of a city lot consisting of photographs before and after the Improvement Association took hold of it. In three years the Association has more than trebled its membership and the income has more than doubled. Superintendent Nelson reports that the office of the Association seems to be looked upon as a clearing house for many domestic troubles. Considerable success has been achieved in the planting of shade trees on the streets. The Year Book contains valuable data on Voluntary Service in Municipal Administration by Charles Zueblin; A Report on Neighborhood Improvement Associations by Mrs. F. A. Johnson; A Plea for the Use of the School District as a Center or Link for Neighborhood Interests by E. G. Routzahn; and a comprehensive analysis of ideal charter provisions for the organization and powers of local Association districts.

TOPICS IN THE MAGAZINES

The March issue of *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* is devoted to "City Life and Progress." The leading articles of this extremely valuable issue include: Municipal Nomination Reform, Horace E. Deming; The Development of Park System in American Cities, Andrew Wright Crawford; The Reform Movement in Chicago, Hoyt King; The Housing Problem in American Cities, Lawrence Veiller; The Progress of Sanitation in Great Britain. A. K. Chalmers; Medical Inspection of Public Schools, Lillian D. Wald; Recent Extension of Municipal Functions in the United States, John A. Fairlie; The Reorganization of Local Government in Cuba, L. S. Rowe; The Activities of Civic Organizations for Municipal Improvement in the United States—A Symposium.

Flower Gardening: The Decorative Mission of the Vine, Hamlin Garland; My Rustic Arches, James E. Tyler; The Small Suburban Garden, Francis Durando Nichols, *Good Housekeeping*, April.

From Barnyard to Flower Garden in Three Months (fully illustrated), Flora Louise Marble. *Floral Life*, March.

The Awakening of the Trees, J. Horace McFarland, *Outlook*, April 1.

Accounts of Luther Burbank's Work in Breeding Plants, W. S. Harvard, *Century*, March and April.

The Making of a Small Garden. H. A. Caparn, *House Beautiful*, April.

A Metropolitan Park System for Chicago. Dwight Heald Perkins of the Special Commission. *The World Today*, March.

The Boys' Club Idea. Daniel T. Pierce. *The World Today*, April.

The Remaking of Boston, Rollin Lynde Hartt. *World's Work*, April.

Bird Hunting with the Camera, Herbert K. Job. *Review of Reviews*, April.

A Painter of Modern Industrialism: The Notable Work of Colvin Campbell Cooper, Albert W. Baker. *Booklovers' Magazine*, March.

The New Paris, Paul Strauss. *Municipal Journal* (concluded in April).

School Gardens, by John A. Curry, in *The School Arts Book*. April, is a short but suggestive article, with diagrams. An account of the work in Cleveland, by Lucy B. Buell, appears in *Charities*, April 1; also on Philadelphia, by Helen Christine Bennett. Another article on the Philadelphia work by Helen Christine Bennett is published in the *Booklovers' Magazine*, April.

Current Events Programs and News Summary

CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS

DOMESTIC

Roll-call: Lessons of the year concerning best methods of studying current events. Let leader tabulate slips and announce conclusions.

Papers: (a) Progress of the Panama Canal; (b) Review of Influence of Trade Unions on Immigrants, valuable report by Carroll D. Dwight, *Bulletin of the Bureau of Labor*, January, 1905; (c) Return of the Confederate Battle Flags (authorized February 24); (d) The Chicago Mayoralty Election (April 4).

Readings: (a) From The Confessions of a Commercial Senator, *World's Work*, April; (b) Foreign Service of The Associated Press, Melville E. Stone, *Century*, April; (c) From The N-Rays. Robert Kennedy Duncan, *Harper's Magazine*, April; (d) From The Ethical Education of the Merchant, Gustav Bunzel, *International Journal of Ethics*, April; (e) From University Training for Business Men, Simon N. Patten, *Educational Review*, March; (f) From Why Girls Should Go to College, Charles F. Thwing, *Success*, April; (g) From The Cost of War, Charles J. Bullock, *Atlantic*, April.

Address: Publicity as a Corrective of Corruption.

Debate: Resolved, That Money Dishonestly Acquired Should Not Be Accepted for Endowment by Religious, Philanthropic or Educational Institutions.

FOREIGN

Prophecy: How Soon Will the Russo-Japanese War End, and Why? (Award prize for best prophecy).

Papers: (a) Character sketches of Generals Oyama and Kuropatkin; (b) The late Adolf Von Menzel (German artist) and His Work; (c) A Hundred Years of Hans Christian Andersen (centenary celebrated April 2); (d) Significance of the New Berlin Cathedral.

Readings: (a) From The Characteristics of the Japanese People, Byron Kentaro Kaneko, *National Geographic Magazine*, March; (b) From the War's Disclosure of the Orient, T. Iyenaga, *World's Work*, April; (c) From Social and Industrial Russia, F. A. Ogg, THE CHAUTAUQUAN, May; (d) From The Crisis in Austria-Hungary, M. Baumfield, *Review of Reviews*, April; (e) From The Welsh Revival, E. Douglas Shields, *World Today*, March.

War Report: Progress of the Russo-Japanese War to date.

NEWS SUMMARY

DOMESTIC

March 2.—H. Rider Haggard, English novelist and agriculturist, arrives in New York to investigate American farm colonies for the British government.

3.—A resolution adopted by the Minnesota house of representatives advocates a state factory at the state prison, for the manufacture of agricultural implements.

4.—Theodore Roosevelt and Charles Warren Fairbanks are inaugurated President and Vice-President of the United States.

5.—Commisioner Garfield begins inquiry into the methods pursued by the Standard Oil Company.

6.—Jacob H. Schiff endows a chair of social work in Columbia University with $100,000. President Roosevelt announces his new cabinet, the only change being the appointment of George B. Cortelyou to succeed Mr. Wynne as Postmaster General.

7.—President appoints Charles H. Treat, New York, treasurer of the United States to succeed Ellis H. Roberts; also Charles W. Anderson, a negro, to be a district collector of internal revenue in New York.

16.—James H. Peabody is declared governor of Colorado by vote of the general assembly.

17.—Governor Peabody of Colorado resigns in favor of Lieutenant-Governor Jesse F. McDonald according to previous agreement.

18.—Secretary Hay sails for the Mediterranean on a health trip. Special session of the Senate adjourns without reaching a decision on the Santo Domingo treaty. Major William Warner, of Missouri, is elected United States Senator.

22.—Federal grand jury in Chicago begins an investigation of the beef trust.

23.—Delaware legislature adjourns without electing a United States senator. The President appoints Truman H. Newberry, of Detroit, assistant secretary of the navy.

24.—Castro, dictator of Venezuela, refuses demand of the United States for arbitration of the asphalt controversy.

25.—Nebraska legislature appropriates $250,000 for a state binder-twine factory.

27.—Mrs. Chadwick is sentenced to ten years' imprisonment.

28.—President Roosevelt reaches working agreement with government of Santo Domingo as to its disposal of revenues until definite action is taken by United States Senate.

29.—American Board of Foreign Missions delays acceptance of gift of $100,000 from John D. Rockefeller; much opposition develops to "tainted" money. The members of the Isthmian canal commission resign.

FOREIGN

March 1.—Lord Selborne is chosen British High Commissioner to South Africa, succeeding Lord Milner.

2.—Russian Committee of Ministers votes to establish religious freedom.

3.—Tzar signs a rescript containing a decree giving elected representatives of the people an opportunity to express their views in the preparation of laws; these representatives will in no sense constitute a national assembly.

4.—Italian cabinet resigns because of illness of Premier Giolitti.

6.—Mr. Wyndham, Chief Secretary for Ireland, resigns from the British Ministry. The battle around Mukden continues with heavy loss of life and reported Japanese successes.

7.—Oyama is reported to have won a great victory at Mukden; the fighting still continues.

10.—Japanese troops occupy Mukden.

11.—Russians reach Tie Pass fighting a rear guard action with the Japanese. The losses on both sides to date are said to be not less than 200,000.

12.—The British Cabinet is reorganized: Walter Hume Long becomes chief Secretary

for Ireland and the Marquis of Salisbury, President of the Board of Trade.

13.—Tzar calls a war council to consider the general Russian situation.

14.—French bankers postpone the issue of a new Russian loan.

17.—General Linevitch succeeds General Kuropatkin as commander of the Russian army.

19.—Japanese occupy Kaiyan, twenty miles north of Tie Pass.

20.—Russian Governor Miasorodoff of Finland is shot and seriously wounded by a boy fifteen years old.

21.—General Kuropatkin returns to the front as commander of the First Army.

22.—A resolution adopted by the House of Commons discredits Chamberlain's protective policy. Committee of Russian ministers recommends that the compulsory use of Russian in Polish schools be abandoned.

25.—In and about St. Petersburg 30,000 workmen are locked out of factories.

26.—Chief of police in Warsaw is wounded by a bomb explosion.

29.—Japanese bond issue of $150,000,000 is soon over-subscribed in England and the United States. Russian securities suffer a decline.

OBITUARY

March 6.—John H. Regan, ex-United States Senator from Texas and last survivor of the Confederate Cabinet.

7.—Albert M. Palmer, noted theatrical manager. Rear-Admiral Edwin S. Houston, U. S. N., retired.

9.—Senator William B. Bates, of Tennessee.

18.—General Joseph R. Hawley, U. S. A., retired.

24.—Jules Verne, novelist. Don Manuel de Aspiroz, Mexican Ambassador at Washington.

Chautauqua Spare Minute Course

SPARE MINUTE COURSE MEMORANDA

September, 1904—May, 1905.

Instead of the usual Spare Minute program this month a "review" based on the questions below will be found most helpful.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

1. Why should the French Revolution be taken as the starting point for studying Social Progress?
2. What is the significance of the Industrial Revolution in England?
3. What industrial changes do German Socialists favor?

READING JOURNEY

1. What do you consider most worth while seeing in Belgium, and why?
2. What are the Klöster?
3. What would you choose to see in Berlin if you had but one week there, and why?

GERMAN MASTER MUSICIANS

1. Give three reasons why the study of Beethoven is particularly important.
2. Why do you think that music is worth studying to learn of social progress?

CIVIC LESSONS FROM EUROPE

1. What do you consider the most important civic lesson from Europe for the United States, described in THE CHAUTAUQUAN series for the year, and why?

SCIENTIFIC CONTRIBUTIONS TO SOCIAL WELFARE

1. Name one recent contribution to social welfare made by (a) bacteriology, (b) psychology, (c) geography, (d) physiology.

HOW THE AMERICAN BOY IS EDUCATED

1. What do you consider the most important recent development in American education?

NATURE STUDY

1. What are the means of distinguishing trees when they are leafless?

SPECIFIED READING

Check the series of "Specified Reading" listed below which you have read:

Social Progress in Europe.
A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany.
German Master Musicians.
Civic Lessons from Europe.
Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare.
How the American Boy Is Educated.
Nature Study.

RECOMMENDED READING

What aditional articles or departments in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, September, 1904, to May, 1905, have you read?

FILLING MEMORANDA

Cut out this page and attach it to the sheet on which you write your answers to correspond with the questions given.

TO OBTAIN CERTIFICATE

If you desire to secure a Spare Minute Course Certificate mail your answers to Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, N. Y., by June 1.

Sign name here.....

Address.....

COUNSELORS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE

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THE CLASS OF 1905

The coming Chautauqua season promises rare privileges to members of the Class of 1905 who are so fortunate as to be able to meet with their classmates. The program for Recognition Week will appeal especially to Chautauquans, for Chancellor John H. Vincent will have charge of the devotional hour, and on Recognition Day the address will be delivered by Miss Jane Addams of Hull House. This will be the third time that the Recognition Address has been given by a woman, Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer and Mrs. Mary A. Livermore having been the previous speakers. The subject of Miss Addams' address, "Work and Play as Factors in Education," will be keenly appreciated by the 1905's, whose four years' studies have closed with a "Social Progress" year. Another feature of this gala week will be Miss Shedlock's charming story-telling hours with Hans Christian Andersen and other literary celebrities. The C. L. S. C. Alumni banquet held on the evening of Recognition Day has now become an established custom and the 1905's will of course be the guests of honor. The President of the class, Dr. James A. Babbitt, is to be on the grounds early in the season. Frequent class meetings and much enthusiasm may be expected and every member will be sure of a cordial welcome.

Many members of the class who cannot come to Chautauqua will be able to take their diplomas at other assemblies and these graduates are urged to improve such opportunities even if they feel unacquainted with their local Chautauquas. Wherever Recognition Day exercises are held, they will be sure of a most friendly welcome and the assembly experience is a good one for every C. L. S. C. member to have. It supplies some of the elements of college life which Chautauqua brings to the out-of-school people.

And there are some, in fact a good many, 1905's who will have to remain at home this summer; but after all the best part of Chautauqua is "within you." One may be a very happy and enthusiastic Chautauquan with a broad outlook and a genuine spirit of progress even if shut up within the walls of a single room. Such people acquire that fine quality which the poet describes as "Mastery."

"To love the austerity of sea and stars
To love the multitudes of mighty towns
To love the hardness of thy prison bars
This must thou know."

IMPORTANT TO THE 1905'S

Every member of the graduating class will receive before the first of June, a printed circular with the heading "Report Blank." This is an important document and each member is asked to fill it out with care and return it to the Chautauqua office as soon as the reading is finished. If

you are to take your diploma at an assembly this blank is your means of letting the Chautauqua Office know the fact. Perhaps you are behind with your reading, are not going away for the summer and don't expect to finish until September; then keep the blank until that time. It may be that you have done all of the reading but have filled out none of the memoranda. These can be filled out, and the seals won later on. Any members of 1905 who fail to receive the "Report Blank" by June 1 should notify the Chautauqua Office, Chautauqua, N. Y.

A WORD TO THE WINNERS OF SEALS

This is the time of year when Chautauqua readers are filling out memoranda and preparing to claim the seals which this extra work merits. Perhaps it will not be amiss if we call attention to some points which it will be helpful to keep in mind:

1. Fill out the memoranda in ink. A large number of papers pass through the hands of the examiners and their work can be done much more rapidly as well as fairly if the answers are plainly written.

2. Unless you are very sure of your powers of expression, write your answer first on another sheet of paper so that you can state it clearly. You may find it wise to rearrange your sentences several times in order to express your thought most effectively and this is one of the benefits of filling out memoranda. Practise putting your ideas in condensed form.

3. The examiners sometimes correct the English on the papers; but no marks are taken off for this as it is not an examination in English.

4. Read the question carefully. Often our readers miss the point of a question just because they jump at conclusions without waiting to see what the question really asks. Here is a question from the memoranda of the American Year and three of the answers which were given. Which one really answers the question?

Question: How do public expenses increase without adding to public burdens?

Answer 1. "For the reason that full value is received for that which is expended."

Answer 2. "Money may be spent to increase the comfort, culture, and well-being of the public, and the increased demand for money will not be felt a burden because of the benefits received."

Answer 3. "Expenses once met by the individual or family are often paid now by the public through taxation, usually with better service and with the burden more evenly distributed."

NEXT YEAR

All Chautauquans will be interested in announcements for the coming "Classical Year." It is the year when fathers and mothers will find themselves coming especially close to the school and college world. It will not be strange if the boys and girls find these Chautauqua books very important to their well being. At the family dinner table one day, a fourteen year old girl suddenly brightened up

THE THIRD C. L. S. C. MOTTO

and took a keen interest in the conversation when some one having remarked that certain modern occurrences were like the deeds of the old Roman oligarchs, her father replied, "but they haven't the Roman populace to deal with." She realized that the school world and the real world were not so far apart as they seemed.

The Evolution of the East compared with the Evolution of the West will bind together the two sections of our "Classical Year." The mysterious Orient is steadily coming nearer to the Occident. What can the two civilizations learn from each other? Recent events in Manchuria make us all keenly interested in the problem and Chautauqua in its new year's course on "The Spirit of the Orient" will give to the C. L. S. C. readers some idea of this spirit as it is expressed in China, Japan, and India. Dr. George W. Knox who is preparing this series for THE CHAUTAUQUAN has lived long in the East, is a gifted scholar, and writes so clearly that every reader will find these studies illuminating. A Reading Journey in China will add this curious and puzzling country to the famous Chautauqua Reading Journey series. The "Spirit of the Orient" will form a splendid background for the Reading Journey which in turn will supplement it with concrete pictures of life in China, the "land of contradictions, puzzles, mysteries, enigmas."

THE CHAUTAUQUAN also will publish a remarkable series of articles on "Classic Influences in Modern Life." These will show in how many ways the classic world touches the twentieth century. At the same time through four capital little books we shall make first hand acquaintance once more with the rich civilization of Greece and Italy. In these days of hasty reading of many books, Chautauqua is doing its readers a real service by giving them the time and opportunity to reread som of the great classics. Details of the course will be found in this magazine.

By the middle of May every Circle should have received a special blank which will be sent out from the Chautauqua Office, at Chautauqua, N. Y. This blank will give announcements of Rallying Day and other features of the coming Chautauqua season. It will also contain a bibliography useful in connection with next year's course, so that Circles can get their libraries to secure these helps. Preliminary programs will also be included for the benefit of Circles which publish year books or wish to arrange their plans very early.

THE "DOM" AT BERLIN

The dedication of the new cathedral or "Dom" of Berlin in February was an event of international interest. The Kaiser is reported to have said to the architect, Professor Raschdorff, "We are not building a church for the province of Brandenburg, nor for Prussia, nor even for all Germany but a cathedral for the Protestants of the world. I should like to have Protestants everywhere feel that they have an interest in the building, have pride in it and feel welcome here of right." The Emperor on another occasion expressed it as his wish that the Berlin cathedral might stand for universal Protestantism much as St. Peter's does for Roman Catholicism. Representatives of Protestant bodies throughout the world were therefore invited to be present at the dedication. The cathedral is an imposing structure standing at the end of Unter den Linden near the Royal Palace and the great Museums. It is to be not only a house of worship but the Westminster Abbey of Berlin. The crypt provides for a vast number of royal tombs and the bones of some ninety members of the Hohenzollern family already await interment there. It is also to be the final resting place for other illustrious Germans.

The Cathedral, as will be seen from the illustration, is in the Renaissance style of architecture. In the middle of the great

entrance hall which is two hundred and forty feet long stands a great triumphal arch adorned with figures of the evangelists and the prophets. Above, at the top of the arch, is a figure of Christ blessing the world. In the main church beneath

From Charities, Feb. 4, 1905.
A YOUNG MUSICIAN

the dome are statues of the great men of the reformation, Luther, Calvin, and others. On the south side of the building is a mourning chapel and on the north side a chapel for monuments. The great organ with 7,000 pipes is said to be the largest in the world except at Riga. It was the gift of one of the Kaiser's Silesian subjects. Altogether the new Cathedral is a significant monument. It will come to mean more and more as Protestantism lays less emphasis upon differences in belief and more upon unity of spirit. The American Chapel in Berlin dedicated a few years ago to unsectarian worship is another illustration of the spirit of the times.

MUSICAL DEVELOPMENT IN AMERICA

Horace Mann believed that the reason why Germans are so much more susceptible to music than Americans was not because the natures of the two peoples are so different, but because German children enjoy musical instruction in the public schools to a much greater degree than is the case with Americans. This seems to be the point of view which is gaining ground in Massachusetts and other states among school supervisors of music. Our series of studies this year on German Master Musicians has given Chautauqua students a practical illustration of the possibilities of musical study, and every Chautauqua mother or teacher can help to create public sentiment by recommending the articles or loaning them to high school principals and teachers.

Circles can also help the cause by inviting to their musical evenings representatives of educational work in the community. If there is a strong department club in your town, which is active in educational work, see that Mr. Surette's fine series is brought to its attention. Invite the music teachers to attend your musical evenings. They have much influence with parents and children. This is a splendid chance for Chautauquans to extend their privileges to others.

In this connection there is a very interesting story of musical developments in New York City, where a Music School Settlement has been established as an outgrowth of social settlement work. The foreign population of our cities can show a great number of children who are gifted musically. To take these children and train their musical faculties, equips them with a congenial method of earning their living and helps to refine and broaden the sources of amusement for a whole community. The story of the "Young Men's Symphony Orchestra" on the East Side in New York is a revelation of what can be done with these latent talents. It will be found in *Charities* for February 4, 1905 (105 E. 22nd St., New York. Ten cents).

OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

"We Study the Word and the Works of God." "Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst." "Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY—May 18.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR JUNE

MAY 26-JUNE 2—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Berlin Celebrities.

JUNE 2-9—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Social Progress in Europe. German Master Musicians: Wagner.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLOSING PROGRAMS FOR THE YEAR

Many of the Circles close the year with a banquet or other festivities and a literary program of a general nature. The following suggestions indicate some general lines which these literary diversions may take. Others will readily occur to program committees:

1.—Paper: An imaginary picture of Europe in 2005 showing, (1) general changes supposed to have taken place in the government of Russia, Turkey, The Balkans, Italy, etc.; (2) social conditions—development of cities as compared with the country; (3) how church difficulties have become adjusted; (4) what the nations have done in the way of coöperation.

2.—Circles which have studied the music articles together might have a musician play selections from twenty or more works thus studied, and see how many members could identify them. Each member should write his decision on a sheet of paper, each name against a number corresponding with the selections.

3.—One Circle has often made a very effective review of its year's work by securing extra copies of THE CHAUTAUQUAN and cutting out all the pictures in the Reading Journey Articles. These are mounted and fastened to the wall, and each member identifies as many as possible.

4.—Descriptions of characters in the year's reading, the Circles being expected to guess the name.

5.—Dramatic incidents of the year represented in pantomime may be made very amusing. Shadow pantomimes might be more readily arranged, as the question of costumes is much less complicated. The equipment is very simple—a sheet stretched between folding doors and a good lamp which will show clear, sharply defined shadows.

THE TRAVEL CLUB

FIRST WEEK—

Oral Report: Sketch of Andrew D. White (see *Review of Reviews*, 26: 697, Dec., '02; *World's Work*, 4:2675, Oct., '02; *Outlook*, 72:19, Sept. 6).

Review: Of article on "The Embassy at Berlin," by A. D. White, in *Century*, 69:301, Dec., '04.

Reading: Selection from chapter on the Kaiser's family life in Von Schierbrand's "Germany" (see also "The Library Shelf" in this magazine).

Roll-call: Aspects of the German Emperor as given by A. D. White in *Century*, 69:483, Feb., '05; or in Von Schierbrand's "Germany," chapters II and III. (These were first printed in *World's Work*, 3:1874, March. '02, and *North American Review*, 175:31, July, '02.)

Oral Report: New Educational Problems in Germany (see article with this title in *Outlook*, 67:687-8, Mar. 23, '01. See also "Seen in "Germany," chapter X.)

Discussion: Important points in the following articles: "Government of German Cities," Albert Shaw, *Century*, 26:296; and "What German Cities Do for Their Citizens," *Century*, 26:380; also "German Municipal Social Service," THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 40:548, Feb., '05.

SECOND WEEK—

Oral Reports: The New Cathedral (see Round Table); The Countess Potocka (see THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 36:97, Oct., 1902); Account of Trojan treasure in Berlin Museum (see volume entitled "Schliemann's Excavations," edited by Schuchhardt).

Reading: Selection from chapter on Haeckel in "Seen in Germany;" or from "Germany and the Germans," W. H. Dawson, chapter giving incidents in the lives of distinguished scholars in Berlin.

Review of article on Berlin in this magazine.

Paper: Joseph Joachim (see *Music*, 19:42-54; *Living Age*, 233:576; *Critic*, N. S., 38:344-9).

Reading: Selection from "Two German Dramatists," E. A. Steiner, *Outlook*, 67:74, January 5, '01.

Discussion: The Modern German Drama. Is it wholesome or otherwise in its influence? (See "Studies in German Literature," Hochdoerfer; and "German Literature as Determined by Social Forces," Kuno Francke.)

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MAY READINGS

GERMANY AND THE PROGRAM OF SOCIALISM

1. January 18, 1871; in the old palace of the French kings at Versailles, just outside Paris. 2. William I, crowned emperor in 1871; Frederick III, who ruled three months in 1888; and William II, from 1888 to the present. 3. Liebknect and Bebel. 4. The theory that the state ought to care for the poor and needy, supply labor for the unemployed, and do other things of the sort which ordinary socialists urge should be done by the people themselves in some less formal associated capacity. Bismarck and William II have supported this view, chiefly as a means of cutting the ground from under the feet of the Socialist party. 5. (a) The tariff. (b) The narrowing of the Reichstag franchise. (c) The maintenance of the Triple Alliance. (d) Colonial expansion. (e) The increase of the army and navy. (f) A closer understanding with the Papacy.

BERLIN I

1. Berlin, Hamburg, Munich, Leipsic, Breslau, Dresden, Cologne, Frankfort-on-Main, Nuremberg, Hanover, Magdeburg, Dusseldorf, Stettin, Chemnitz. 2. An association of writers and artists to protect literature, art, and the drama from oppressive censorship. 3. The German Museum at Harvard is the gift of Emperor William, who desired that the treasures of German art be known and appreciated in America. The collection consists chiefly of reproductions of Medieval and Renaissance sculpture and gold and silver work. 4. Professor Ernst Haeckel of the University of Jena, etc., spread Darwinism in Germany. 5. Charlemagne Tower. 6. Great Britain, France, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Italy.

THE LIBRARY SHELF

A CONFIRMATION ADDRESS BY KAISER WILLIAM II

A special translation, made with the express approval of His Majesty the German Emperor, of an address delivered to his sons, the Princes Augustus and Oscar, at a banquet at the new Palace on the day of their Confirmation, October 17, 1903. Brief summaries of this remarkable discourse were published at the time in some English papers. This, the first authentic translation of the whole address, was made for and published exclusively in the London "Review of Reviews." It is here reproduced by special permission of that publication for the first time in the United States.

My Dear Sons,—At the present time, in which we are about to drain our glasses to your health and to express our congratulations that you have joined us in the congregation of the Lord as men who have a fervid desire to work therein, I should like, as your father, to make a few remarks. This day, in a spiritual sense, is for you similar to the day on which the officer or the soldier takes the oath to his colors. As Princes of the Royal House you have the privilege of wearing a uniform from the tenth year of your age. To this I desire to compare your christening. You are selected as fighters for Christ. With the present day you have, so to speak, come of age in your faith. The defence and weapon, as well as the armour, which you will have to use, have been taught you and prepared for you by a skilled hand. Their use in all the situations of life is left to you from now on. But while in this respect it will be possible to also further instruct you, finally, however, every one must learn for themselves how to use weapons. It is also the same with the spiritual ones which are entrusted to him. I intentionally speak in a military sense, as I presume you know the beautiful parable in which the Christian is compared to a warrior, in which the weapons which the Lord has placed at his disposal are left to his choice. You will certainly find later on an opportunity to use one or the other of those weapons; and you will surely carry out what you have this day so nicely promised in your pledge. Your religious teacher has emphasised—and quite correctly—to you the idea of what is to be expected from you; that is, that you must become "personalities." This is just the point on which, in my opinion, the most depends for a Christian in the struggle of life. For there can be no doubt whatever, when referring to the person of our Lord, we can say: He has been the "most personal personality" *(die persönlichste Persönlichkeit)* that has ever wandered about on this earth among the children of men.

In school you have read and heard, and you will read and hear in the future, of many great men, savants, statesmen, kings, princes, and also poets. You have read words and sayings of many of them, which ennobled you and even filled you with enthusiasm. To be sure! Is there a German youth who would not feel inspired and enthusiastic by songs such as those of our poet Koerner? And yet they are all but the words of men. Not one of them is to be compared with any single word spoken by our Lord. And this is said to you so that you will be in a position to defend it as soon as you find yourselves in the struggle of life, and hear exchanges of opinions and also exchange opinions yourselves regarding religion, and, above all, regarding the person of our Savior. The word of man has never been able to uniformly inspire people of all races and of all nations to attain the same aim, to endeavor to be like Him, and even to give their lives for Him. This miracle can only be explained from the fact that the words He spoke were the words from the living God, which awaken life, and which remain alive even after a period of many thousands of years, while the words of the savants are long forgotten.

Now, when I look back on my personal experience, I can only assure you, and your experience will be the same, that the cardinal and main object of human life, and principally that of a life full of responsibility and activity—

this has become clearer to me from year to year, lies solely and alone in the position we take regarding our Lord and Savior. I have called Him the most personal of personalities, and thus rightly, for it cannot be otherwise in human life; and as happens with us all, so it was also with Him. There have been disputes regarding opinions of Him; some were for Him; some were in doubt, and many were against Him. But about this there can be no doubt whatever, and the severest foe and denier of the Lord is but a proof of the fact—the Lord is still living at the present time as a complete personality which cannot be ignored! His heavenly form is still walking about in our midst, visible only to our mental eye, and perceptible only to our soul; comforting, helping, strengthening, but also awakening contradiction and persecution, and because He cannot be ignored, every human being is compelled, whether he be aware of it or not, to compare the life he leads, the office he holds, the work he does, with the angle of vision in which he stands towards our Savior, and if his work is done in the sight of the Lord, whether it be agreeable to Him, or whether it be the contrary, his conscience, if it be still alive, will always thus direct him. In fact, I firmly believe that many people are of the opinion that it is inconceivable in our nowadays "modern" life, with its multifarious duties and its many situations full of responsibility, that one could give such particular attention to the personality of our Savior, and have so much regard for Him as there was felt for Him in former times.

Mankind has filled heaven with many beautiful figures, others than that of our Lord, with pious Christians who are called saints, and to whom he prays for help. But all this is only an incident and vain. The only helper and redeemer is now, and will always be, the Savior. There is only one thing I can advise you with all my heart, regarding your future life: toil and work without intermission: this is the essential part of the Christian life; it was thus He lived before us! Glance at the Scriptures and read the parables of our Savior. The severest punishment is for the one who does nothing, who sits idle, or floats with the stream and allows others to do the work, such as in the parable of the talents. Whatsoever be your passions or your gifts, everyone should try to do the best in his power and in his province to become a personality, to grow into his duties, to toil in them, and to further them in accordance with the example of our Savior. Above all, in everything you commence, strive to make it, if possible, of benefit to your fellow-men, for it is the most beautiful thing to rejoice with others, and where this be not possible, try to have your work of at least some help to your fellow-men, as was exemplified in the life full of work and the acts of our Lord. In so doing then you will have fulfilled what is expected from you. Then you will become good German men, capable Princes of my house, who are able to share in the great work left to us all. That you may be fitted to carry out such a work to its accomplishment with blessings, and that the help of God and our Savior be with you in this task, to this we drain our glasses!

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES

"Chautauqua represents the true and healthy relationship of literature and life to one another. Its students are scholars who are at the same time men and women deeply involved in the business of living."—Phillips Brooks.

"I must announce a change in our program for this month," said Pendragon as the Round Table came to order. "We have, as you know, usually devoted our May meeting to reports of what the Circles are doing to promote public libraries. But it seems wise to defer the library meeting till September, which is an especially favorable time to consider such projects, and so have this, our last meeting, free for further reports of the year's achievements. Our 'Social Progress Year' has been a very stimulating one and the enthusiasm which speaks in these letters and newspaper clippings received since our last meeting shows how much our readers have gained from the year. I want to mention that I have received a most interesting letter from South Africa from Rev. J. J. Ross who is starting Chautauqua among the Dutch Africanders. They are already arranging for an assembly to be held in December, and I shall have more news to report when we next meet. You will all remember our Norway member's account of his lectures on Professor Ely's book, 'Evolution of Industrial Society,' which we studied a year ago. I have recently learned that the book not only attracted flattering attention in England and Germany but that Professor Ely has received a request for permission to translate it into Japanese. It makes the world in general seem quite like our own neighborhood when Norway, and England, and Germany, and Japan are interested in the very books that we are reading."

"I think we all had the neighborhood feeling quite strongly at our recent Victor Hugo meeting," commented the delegate from the Outlook Circle at Mt. Vernon, New York, "for one of our members spent her girlhood on the Island of Guernsey and her reminiscences of Victor Hugo, with reading of selections from 'Toilers of the Sea' and the use of photographs sent by her niece who still lives there, gave a personal flavor to the evening's exercises which was most delightful. We reviewed Victor Hugo's life and enjoyed some readings both from his charming lyric poems and from 'Les

Miserables.' The committee provided us with these little souvenir postal cards which will remind us of one of the best meetings our Circle has held."

Pendragon laid a few programs on the table remarking, "The Calvary C. L. S. C., of East Orange, New Jersey, get out their programs in this very attractive style. You see they have their own letter-head on which is printed

HOUSE OF VICTOR HUGO
From a souvenir postal card.

the name of the member who presumably sees to the mimeographing of the programs. They are models of clearness and good arrangement and must be of great value to the Circle. I notice that they have had the use of a pianola in connection with their musical studies and state that there has been much interest in the great composers. After Mr. Steffen's disheartening article on New Jersey in the last *McClure's* it seems only fair to emphasize some of her redeeming features as embodied in her Chautauqua Circles. Glance over these programs from the South Orange Circle and you will see in what thoroughgoing fashion they are doing their work. They have besides held two illustrated lecture evenings, one on the French revolution and one on the city of Paris. These have been free lectures and have attracted many people. The Circle certainly is to be congratulated. We have another Circle also which ought to lead us not to despair of New Jersey since a "John Ruskin" C. L. S. C. can flourish in her borders. Here is their very tasteful little letter-head—but I see we have a representative from Red Bank, the home of the Circle."

RUSKIN CIRCLE
RED BANK, N.J.

A NEAT LETTER-HEAD

"You will yet be proud of New Jersey," the delegate assured the Round Table. "We feel very enthusiastic over our recent meeting with the German Master Musicians. If you will examine our program you will see how carefully the arrangements were planned. We give an occasional evening to several musicians and so contrast their works. We have a good deal of musical talent in our Circle and the evening was such a success that we intend to try the same plan with some of the other 'masters.' We have more than forty members and have no trouble in finding enough to talk about. The recent debate between two of our members on 'Resolved That Trades Unions Are Beneficial to the Working Man' showed what we can do when we get thoroughly aroused."

"Before we leave New Jersey," added Pendragon, "I may mention that the Circle at Vineland, which in its plans for spending seven million dollars includes good roads, pensions and rest home for teachers, model tenements and a great variety of other benevolences, also proposes to set aside half a million for 'the development of Chautauqua ideas.' This surely is a sentiment worthy of an enlightened state!"

"As we seem to be having an exhibit of letter-heads, may we present ours?" inquired the delegate from the Carson Circle of Brooklyn, New York. "You see it gives the names and addresses of our officers and we find it most convenient for all our official business. Our Circle is in a highly prosperous state with a membership of about forty men and women, the large majority of whom are constantly in attendance. At almost every meeting the program is so constructed as to call for the individual effort of every member present. Our meetings never lag. Our essays, debates, contests, etc., keep up a running fire of interest that makes every one anxious to be present."

"And perhaps I may add a word or two," said the delegate from the Brooklyn Alumni. "We have, as you know, a fine organization of graduates which has been meeting for sixteen years. This year we introduced an innovation by having addresses and lectures. A recent one on 'The Evolution of Language' was greatly enjoyed. Our Alumni, as you may imagine, has developed a strong social bond among its members and good fellowship still prevails in spite of the fact that the tendency to write spring and other poetry has, I may say, become epidemic among us. A musical setting for each lyric serves, however, as a friendly cloak for occasional infelicities and so no harm is done and much fun results!"

Pendragon next called attention to a small green program. "This," he explained, "is furnished by the Chautauqua League of Des Moines and is well worth your attention. The

League brings the various city Circles together in a pleasant gathering once a month with a very attractive program bearing upon the work of the year. The League is now nearly ten years old and fully deserves its prestige. You will see that one evening was devoted to the study of Wagner and another to the famous women of France. Besides the officers there are program and music committees and a board of directors."

"This other program," he added, holding up a trim little leaflet, "represents the work of the new S. H. G. of Des Moines. You must hear from their delegate."

"We had been so fortunate in our Chautauqua League meetings in Des Moines," replied the delegate, "that we were a little uncertain about the possibilities of an S. H. G., but there seemed to be need for a purely graduates' association and we've succeeded beyond our expectations. We have fifty-seven members with an average attendance of thirty; this year we are devoting ourselves to the Reading Journey and the German Master Musicians. We try to get speakers who have visited the countries which we are studying and we usually have delightful programs. Our S. H. G. entertained the graduates at the Midland Chautauqua here last summer with a picnic supper and received them into membership and hope to spur on our undergraduates to finish up their work and join us. We belong to the city federation so we are in touch with progressive movements in our community."

The delegate from the Forest Circle of Cleveland was the next to report. "I'm obliged to say," she ventured politely, "that the New Jersey Circle isn't the only one which planned to devote some of the seven millions to Chautauqua, for our Circle had decided that one million should be set aside for that purpose; but we will gladly give first place to the Vineland Circle for we know how long a career it has had. We've devoted considerable attention to music and although we have no printed programs our weekly meetings are most interesting. As I see there are no other delegates here from Cleveland, I'd like to report for an excellent little Circle, the 'Junior Utilian Club,' whose program which I have here is very creditable. They are young people who lead very busy lives and they have been devoting themselves this year to our Chautauqua book, 'Literary Leaders of America.' The program shows how much pains they are taking with it. Last year they took 'Literary Leaders of Modern England' in the same way. Perhaps you'll also be interested in this little leaflet which was the New Year's greeting sent by Mr. W. F. Walworth to his Chautauqua Circle. Mr. Walworth, as you know, has long been a Trustee of Chautauqua Institution and for some years Treasurer also. In his 'greeting' he says among other things: 'It pays to make life a glory instead of a grind; to open a little wider the door of narrow life; to add power to the lens of the microscope or telescope; . . . to become familiar with all the lessons that history or science can teach us as to how to make life most successful.' He adds: 'I am an old man: I have seen lots of trouble, but much of it never happened. Let us eliminate all borrowed trouble.'"

"I find," said Pendragon, "that some of our individual readers are very much interested in the proper disposition of the 'seven millions' which are to foster the spirit of human brotherhood. One of our members from Hartford, Connecticut, writes:

"'It did not take me long to decide as I have for several years been carrying out on a small scale to the extent of my means the idea I have in mind. I would hunt out boys who want but are unable to secure an education, giving them the best the world affords—either professional or technical according to their tastes.'"

"I wonder if any other individual members want a hearing?"

"My particular hobby," responded a Chicago member, "is this. I'm a university graduate and I realize how abstract a student's notions of his fellow beings become. He talks about an 'economic man' and a 'sociological man' but his human brother he doesn't study. Now I should endow a chair in a university for the proper cultivation of human sympathy and to keep it from being purely emotional I'd have the students do research work among the tenements and get their material at first hand. Then I'd endow also a newspaper to deal in social news that would inform people of real social conditions, not magnified 'yellow' accounts written up to sell papers but straight reports that could be relied upon and would suggest to earnest people what evils could and must be corrected."

"I'm so delighted with this suggestion," interposed a New York City member. "I'd like to call the Round Table's attention to a very interesting announcement which I hold in my hand regarding a new chair at Columbia University. Evidently the same 'thought wave' has been felt in both New York and Chicago." At the request of the Round Table the New York member read the following:

"A Chair of Social Work: It was announced at a recent meeting of the trustees of

such as Jenny Ragtail punishing the little brown rabbit with a lady slipper, the field mouse committing suicide with cyanide of potassium; the toilet, and course dinner of the bears in the story of "Snoof" remind us vividly of the garbage scene in the original Johnny Bear. M. M.

THE WOOING OF WISTARIA. By Onoto Watanna. $1.50. New York: Harper Brothers.

In these days when our attention is attracted to all things Japanese this pathetic story of Wistaria by a gifted writer of that nation particularly appeals to our sympathy. The story is presented with singular charm, and is artistically and delicately presented. The book is beautifuly bound and illustrated. M. M.

KIBUN DAIZIN, OR FROM SHARK BOY TO MERCHANT PRINCE. By Gensai Murai. Translated by Masao Yoshid. Illustrated. Pp. 164. 6x8½. $1.25. New York: The Century Co.

An interesting story of a Japanese boy's rise from poverty to wealth and honor. Many quaint terms and expressions have been retained, adding to the interest of the book. The illustrations of Japanese life add to the attractiveness of the descriptions. M. M.

TILLIE: A MENNONITE MAID. By Helen R. Martin. $1.50. New York: The Century Co.

This book has been well described as one the jaded novel reader will enjoy. There is freshness, novelty, and variety to the people and the plot. Tillie is a charming ambitious young girl, the daughter of a Pennsylvania Dutchman, and her struggles for an education involve her in situations both humorous and pathetic. The dialect of the book is exceedingly interesting. M. M.

HORSES NINE By Sewell Ford. $1.25. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

The strongest rival to "Black Beauty" that has yet appeared is this charming collection of horse stories, in fact in literary merit and variety of presentation they far exceed our old favorite. Horses belonging to the police, the circus, and fire department—horses occupying lowly and exalted positions in country and town are all faithfully described and by turns enlist our sympathy and admiration. Aside from giving pleasure to enthusiastic readers. Mr. Ford has performed a piece of humanitarian work in "Horses Nine." M. M.

SELECTIONS FROM TENNYSON'S POEMS. Edited by Henry Van Dyke. $1.50. New York: Ginn & Co.

Dr. Van Dyke shows his usual good judgment in the selection and editing of these poems. In addition to the scholarly introduction the book contains copious notes and classification of Tennyson's metres which will prove of great assistance to the young student of Tennyson. M. M.

LIFE AND LETTERS OF JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER. By S. T. Pickard. $1. Boston: Houghton Mifflin & Co.

The value of this book is enhanced by the fact that the author was an old and intimate friend of the poet. Many delightful anecdotes and facts connected with Whittier's family, his work and life, are published for the first time. The book is attractively bound and contains many illustrations. M. M.

THE BROWN FAIRY BOOK. Edited by Andrew Lang. Illustrated. Pp. 350. 5x7½. $1.60. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

The many fairy books, blue, red, green, yellow, pink, crimson, violet, and grey, which have been hailed with delight by the children admirers of this popular author, have had another color added to their list. "The Brown Fairy Book" is merely descriptive of the binding, certainly not the author's style in these brilliant and absorbing fairy tales. M. M.

HUMAN PHYSIOLOGY. By John I. Jegi. pp. 343. Illustrated. $1.00. New York: The Macmillan Co.

In preparing this excellent text-book the author has followed the "story plan" rather than the laboratory method. The topics, which follow one another in a logical manner, are discussed in a clear and simple style, and are unusually well illustrated. Chapters upon bacteria and diseases caused by them, and upon public health, add greatly to the value of the book. M. J.

FAIRY LEGENDS OF THE FRENCH PROVINCES. Translated by Mrs. M. Cary. 60 cents. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Young people of all ages will find as great delight in these charming French fairy tales, as those of Grimm and Andersen. There are fascinating descriptions of bears, foxes and hares; castles in the air, good and bad dwarfs and fairies, all the enchantment so dear to the hearts of children. M. M.

THE NEW HARMONY COMMUNITIES. By George Browning Lockwood. 6½x9½. pp. 282. 25 illustrations. Marion, Ind.: The Chronicle Co.

The frontispiece of this excellent piece of historical investigation, the photograph of Robert Owen, was reproduced in connection with Mr. Ogg's article on "The Great Era of English Reform" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for February. It is a distinct contribution to available monographs on American history and an intensive study of "community" experiments of equal interest to sociologists. Its quality has been recognized by adoption as one of the books for the Indiana State Teachers' Reading Circle; its readableness will interest lovers of the "true story" as well. F. C. B.

Chautauqua Assembly Calendar, 1905

COLORADO

Place	*Date*	*Recognition Day*
Boulder,	July 4-Aug. 7.	
Manager, F. A. Boggess, Boulder, Colo.		
Palmer Lake,	July 10-Aug. 4.	Aug. 4.
Glen Park,		
Manager, Frank McDonough, E. & C. Bldg., Denver, Colo.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, C. F. McCarnine, McPhee Bldg., Denver, Colo.		

CONNECTICUT

Forestville,	July 13-27.	July 20.
Manager, Daniel W. Howell, 411 Windsor Ave., Hartford, Conn.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Geo. M. Brown.		

ILLINOIS

Clinton,	Aug. 18-28.	
Manager E. B. Bentley, Clinton, Ill.		
Dixon,	July 30-Aug. 14.	
Manager, Hon. Adam Krape, Lena, Ill.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. W. H. Hartman, Forreston, Ill.		
Lithia Springs,	July 29-Aug. 15.	
Manager, Rev. Jasper L. Douthit, Lithia, Ill.		
Moline,	July 13-23.	
Mgr. W. V. Richards, Moline, Ill.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. E. A. Shipley, Des Moines, Ia.		
Ottawa,	Aug 18-26.	Aug. 19.
Manager, R. C. Jordan, Ottawa, Ill.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, W. J. Hoffman, Ottawa, Ill.		
Petersburg,	Aug. 9-24.	
Manager, Rev. Geo. H. Turner, Petersburg, Ill.		
Piasa,	July 20-Aug. 16.	July 31 or Aug. 14.
Manager, W. O. Paisley, Lincoln, Ill.		
Pontiac,	July 22-Aug. 6.	July 27.
Manager, A. C. Folsom.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. Alice H. Limerick, Winfield, Kansas.		
Rockford,	Aug. 17-31.	Aug. 24.
Manager, A. C. Folsom, Pontiac, Ill,.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Alice H. Limerick, Winfield, Kansas.		

INDIANA

Rome City,	July 19-Aug. 11.	Aug. 4.
Manager, Rev. J. F. Snyder, La Grange, Ind.		
Secretary, Katherine Harper, Goshen, Ind.		
Winona Lake,	July 5-Sept. 1.	
Manager, Sol C. Dickey, 118 Monument Pl., Indianapolis, Ind.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Emma Anderson, 118 Monument Pl., Indianapolis, Ind.		

IOWA

Allerton,	August 16-23.	
Manager. John A. Shannon, Allerton, Ia.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Inez F. Kelso, Humeston, Ia.		
Centerville,	Aug. 4-13.	
Manager, J. M. Beck, Centerville, Ia.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Inez F. Kelso, Humeston, Ia.		
Marshalltown,	Aug. 12-20.	
Manager, Elijah Brown Jones. Marshalltown, Ia.		
Waterloo,	July 11-Aug. 2.	July 20.
Manager, Rev. Frank L. Loveland, Waterloo, Ia.		

KANSAS

Beloit,	July 31-Aug. 6.	
Manager, T. H. J. Taggart, Concordia, Kansas.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. A. E. Shipley, 1328 E. 13 h St., Des Moines, Ia.		
Concordia,	July 28- Aug. 6.	
Manager, J. C. Porter, Jewell City, Kansas.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. A. E. Shipley, Des Moines, Ia.		
Lincoln Park,	Aug. 3-13.	
Manager, E. L. Huckell, Cawker City, Kansas.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Hamilton, Wichita, Kas.		
Winfield,	June 20-30.	June 26.
Manager, M. L. Wortman, Winfield. Kans.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Alma F. Piatt.		

KENTUCKY

Owensboro,	Aug. 2-17.	Aug. 14.
Manager, W. G. Archer, Owensboro, Ky.		

MAINE

Ocean Park, July 20-Aug. 31. Aug. 10.
Manager, Rev. W. K. Twort, 12 Reservoir St., Lawrence, Mass.

MARYLAND

Washington Grove, July 4-Sept. 1. Aug. 17.
Manager, W. H. H. Smith, Room 382, Navy Dept., Washington, D. C

MISSOURI

Carthage, July 3-12.
Manager, H. J. Fitzer, Carthage.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. Alma F. Piatt.
Pertle Springs, Aug. 10-18.
Manager A. C. Stewart, 401 N. 4th St., St. Louis, Mo.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. A. E. Shipley. 1328 E 13th St., Des Moines, Ia.

NEBRASKA

Beatrice, July 6-18.
Manager, Fuller Swift, Des Moines, Ia.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Julia Fuller, Beatrice, Neb.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Hedding, Aug. 7-26.
Manager, Rev. E. E. Dorion, Franklin Falls, N. H.

NEW YORK

Chautauqua, June 29-Aug. 27. Aug. 16.
Manager, Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, N. Y.

OHIO

Bethesda, Aug. 2-16. Aug. 12.
Manager, Rev. M. J. Slutz, Barnesville, O.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. P. U. Hawkins, Barnesville, O.
Celena, July 21-31.
Manager and C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. Milton W. Brown, Westwood, Cincinnati, O.
Delaware, Aug. 4-14. Aug. 14.
Manager, Rev. Milton W. Brown, Westwood, Cincinnati, O.
Defiance, Aug. 3-13.
Manager, Rev. A. P. Murphy, Defiance.
Lima, July 21-31.
Manager and C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. Milton W. Brown, Westwood, Cincinnati, O.
Wellston, Aug. 11-21.
Manager. and C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev Milton W. Brown. Westwood, Cincinnati, O.

OKLAHOMA

Kingfisher, June 1-11.
Manager, J. H. Parker, Kingfisher.

PENNSYLVANIA

Mt. Gretna, July 3-Aug. 4.
Manager, L. E. McGinnis, Steelton, Pa.
C. L. S. C. Representative, L. E. McGinnis.
Naomi Pines, July 10-Aug. 5.
Manager, G. P. Eckles.
C. L. S. C. Representative, J. H. Morgan, Ph. D., Carlisle.

SOUTH DAKOTA

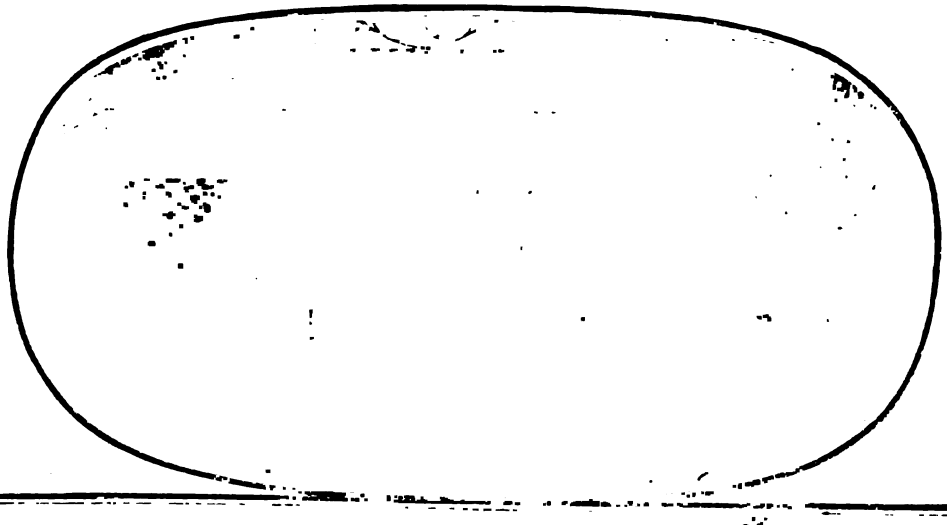
Big Stone, June 29-July 10. July 7.
Manager, S. R. Golden, Big Stone, S. D.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. Etta Vosberg, Milbank, S. D.
Madison, June 24-July 1.
Manager, H. P. Smith, Madison, S. D.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. Hugh Robinson, Madison.

VIRGINIA

Shenandoah Valley, Aug. 4-16. Aug. 12.
Manager, A. P. Funkhouser, Harrisonburg.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Jessie Funkhouser, Harrisonburg.

WISCONSIN

Chetek, July 11-21.
Manager, J. W. Bell, Chetek, Wisconsin.
C. L. S. C. Representative, E. D. Claypool, Fayette, Ia.
Waupaca, Aug. 8-22.
Manager, H. A. Larson, Waupaca.



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TREE NUMBER

June 1905

Price 20 Cents

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THE CHAUTAUQUAN

A Monthly Magazine of Things Worth While

Official Publication of Chautauqua Institution

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TREES IN CENTRAL PARK, LOUISVILLE, KENTUCKY

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THE CHAUTAUQUAN

VOL. XLI. JUNE, 1905 No. 4.

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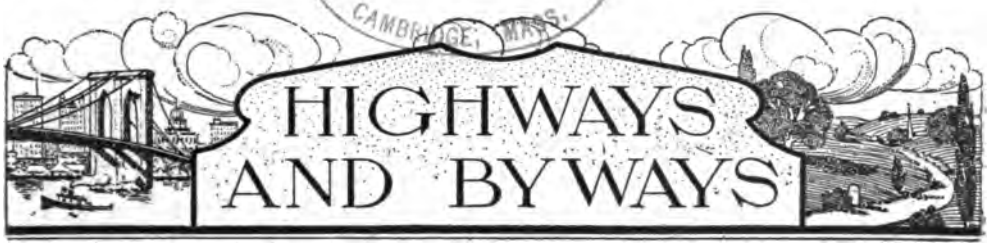


BY a series of decisions now historic the United States Supreme Court established the principle that the Constitution does not "go with the flag"—that is, that it does not extend of its own force, without appropriate congressional action, to possessions or territory acquired by purchase or conquest. These decisions, as intelligent citizens are aware, apply to Porto Rico, the Philippines and Guam. These insular possessions are American territory, of course, but they are not incorporated into the United States and may be governed "outside the Constitution."

At an early stage in the animated, not to say stormy, discussion of our "colonial question" certain writers directed attention to the peculiar status of Alaska in the light of these decisions. That "possession" had been acquired by purchase from Russia, and the treaty of cession provided for the bestowal upon the Alaskans of the rights of American citizenship. But it had never been "incorporated;" it was not a Territory of the United States, and it was governed by a congressional code of a very crude and unsatisfactory character. Many provisions in that code were enacted, tacitly at least, on the theory that the Constitution did not apply to Alaska. This is notably true of the tax and jury laws.

Last month the Supreme Court handed down a decision in a case involving the validity of the jury provision of the Alaskan code. It held that the inhabitants of Alaska, like those of organized Territories and States, must be tried by common law juries where the offenses charged are such as to require trial by jury under the Constitution. The Alaska code provides for a jury of six men.

The government had contended that the Bill of Rights, which guarantees trial by a common-law jury of twelve, was not in force in Alaska, because the possession had not been made an integral part of the United States. Moreover, the government had urged, "even if Alaska was incorporated, the provisions of the Sixth Amendment were not controlling on Congress in view of the fact that Alaska was not an organized territory." The court (Justice Brown dissenting) said that the first point was wholly devoid of merit, because Alaska, by the treaty with Russia, became part of the United States, and the doctrine as to unincorporated territory was inapposite and irrelevant to the case. With regard to the second argument, which implied that only in organized territories is Congress limited by the restrictions of the Constitution, the court said:

Without attempting to examine in detail the opinions in the various cases, in our judgment it clearly results from them that they substantially rested upon the proposition that where territory was a part of the United States the inhabitants thereof were entitled to the guarantee of the Fifth, Sixth and Seventh amendments, and that the acts of Congress purporting to extend the Constitution were considered as declaratory merely of a result which existed independently by the inherent operation of the Constitution. . . .

By implication this important decision asserts that *the whole Constitution* is in

force in Alaska. It follows that several other parts of the code under which it is governed are null and void. In what respect, if any, Alaska is legally inferior to the full-fledged Territories, is not clear. Yet she is not a Territory, though she is part of *the* territory of the United States in the full sense of the term.

According to the logic of this decision, "the American Empire," to use Marshall's phrase, comprises:

(1). States, with attributes of sovereignty..

(2). Territories, subject to congressional control, but protected by the Constitution.

(3). Incorporated territory enjoying Constitutional rights but possibly not to the same extent as the Territories.

(4). Mere possessions, dependencies, unincorporated territory that may be governed without reference to Constitutional limitations.

Whether the fathers and founders contemplated so picturesque and embarrassing a heterogeneity will long remain, theoretically, an open question.

Venezuela and Santo Domingo Postponed Difficulties

We set forth in the last issue the "affairs" that have arisen between the United States on the one hand and Venezuela and Santo Domingo, respectively, on the other. There have been interesting developments in each of these cases, but they have not advanced matters much. The difficulties are merely postponed.

With reference to the Venezuelan complication, we are told by Washington correspondents reflecting official views that for the present the incident is closed. It seems that Minister Bowen, under instructions from the Department of State, presented what the correspondents call an "ultimatum" to President Castro of Venezuela. The ultimatum demanded the submission to arbitration of the two "American" controversies with him—that of the Asphalt Company and that of the Orinoco Steamship Company. The case of the former, whose franchises the Venezuelan government is seeking to annul (on grounds already set forth in these columns), is still before the Venezuelan courts. The case of the latter company has already been passed upon by an arbitral tribunal, and Venezuela is complying with the award rendered.

President Castro, it is admitted in semi-official statements, was not particularly impressed by the so-called ultimatum. His reply was more vigorous and valid than conciliatory. He demanded to know whether the United States assumed to impeach the integrity of the Venezuelan courts and imply that no just decision could be expected from them. It is hardly necessary to say that no power in civilization capable of defending its rights and sovereignty would have returned a different answer. President Castro was on safe and firm ground.

His reply, as well as the statement apropos of the second case that he could not consent to arbitrate it a second time, because such a course was contrary to the original agreement and would offend the arbitrator, a prominent European scholar and jurist, "closed the incident" for the

SETTING OUT TROUBLES FOR HIMSELF
The Powers—He will grow switches for his own punishment out of that tree.
—*From the Minneapolis Journal.*

time being. The "ultimatum" failed of effect, and it is for our government to determine how far it will go in this matter in which, as leading papers say, the American people have shown no interest whatever.

With reference to the Santo Domingo affair, the failure of the Senate to ratify the treaty giving us, practically, financial control and "moral suzerainty" over the kingdom disappointed not only our State Department and the President, but the Morales government of Santo Domingo as well. Pressure on the part of European creditors and their respective governments was apprehended, though this was an improbable contingency. Disorder and insurrection in Santo Domingo herself was more likely, as President Morales is unpopular and without just title to his office.

Our minister to Santo Domingo suggested a *modus vivendi* to preserve the status quo and prevent internal disturbances and foreign demonstration, and President Roosevelt promptly accepted the arrangement, which seems to be entirely acceptable to Morales and his faction. It is apparently simple and unobjectionable, but certain senators and editorial commentators see possibilities of mischief and evil in it. Americans, designated in the first place by the President of the United States, are made collectors of Dominican customs and, after handing over forty-five per cent of this revenue to the Morales government for its maintenance and support, deposit the balance in a New York bank for the benefit of the foreign creditors of Santo Domingo. If the Senate ratifies the shelved treaty, the money thus accumulated will be distributed equitably among these creditors; if the treaty shall finally be rejected, the money will be returned to the Morales government and the last state of the creditors will be no worse than the first. They will have lost nothing except a little time.

Those who object to this arrangement do so on these grounds: That the President had no right to conclude such an agreement with a foreign government; that in the event of an insurrection against Morales it might become necessary to send ships and marines to Dominican ports to protect our fiscal agents and prevent interference with the discharge of their duties—a course which, in turn, might lead to war with Dominican revolutionists. Of course, the President has no power to make war, but it is feared that his action may result in a certain situation being created in Santo Domingo which will either embroil us with the people of that perpetually disturbed country or else deprive our Senate of its rightful freedom of action and force it to ratify the treaty in spite of the strongest considerations against such ratification.

THE LATE GENERAL FITZHUGH LEE

Germany, France and Moroccan Question

The political and diplomatic circles of Europe have been agitated and bewildered over a new international complication. We refer to the Moroccan "coup" of the German Emperor. His visit to Tangier, his speech to the German colonists and traders there (a mere handful) and the "explanations" of Chancellor von Bülow in the Reichstag have conspired to create a situation full of menace and possibilities of discord.

The Moroccan question, strictly speaking, concerns only the Mediterranean powers. Germany has not been supposed to "claim" anything in Morocco, and when, early in 1904, the Anglo-French treaty was signed and the claim of France

to a "paramount" position or role in the Moorish kingdom was recognized and confirmed (France making reciprocal concessions to England in Egypt and elsewhere), Germany was not directly consulted regarding the adjustment. In October, 1904, France concluded a convention with Spain whereby the principles of the treaty with England as affecting Morocco were indorsed and accepted by the Madrid government. France thus secured the privilege of "advising" and "assisting" the sultan of Morocco, who is nominally a sovereign ruler, in the maintenance of order and the financial rehabilitation of his country.

MULAI ABDUL AZIZ SULTAN OF MOROCCO

It is true that France is generally believed to contemplate the "absorption" of Morocco, but for the present her policy is one of "pacific penetration." As the ruler and owner of Algeria, France says that the disturbed condition of Morocco, the constant danger of civil war and anarchy, give her the right to press reforms upon the sultan. And this right, we repeat, seems to have been recognized by the great powers of Europe—with the exception of Germany.

The speech of Emperor William at Tangier was at first characterized as an indiscretion. It was, in fact, the result of careful consideration and was intended to serve an important purpose. The Emperor significantly and pointedly dwelt on the independence of Morocco, on the necessity of maintaining the open-door principle in the kingdom and on the determination of Germany to uphold the sovereign rights of the sultan. The speech was well described as "an immense political demonstration." It challenged French claims in a bold way. It served notice on Europe that Germany no longer feared the dual alliance, owing to Russia's weakness and preoccupation in the Far East, and that she must be reckoned with as a great naval and colonial power.

While the speech startled and annoyed France, she remained cool and self-possessed. M. Delcassé, her foreign minister, pointed out that the French policy in Morocco aimed neither at monopoly nor at territorial encroachment, and that the Kaiser's words, consequently, had no practical importance. He announced that no change of any kind would be considered in the premises.

Germany can take no further steps. It is reported that she suggested to the powers an international conference to define the status of Morocco and that none of them responded favorably. England, Russia (the ally of France), and Spain would not participate in such a conference, and the scheme was foredoomed. Nevertheless, if all Germany seeks is some concession, some "compensation," in another part of the world, as the price of her recognition of French predominance in Morocco, the Republic may meet her half way to avoid more serious misunder-

IN A "GERMAN GARDEN"
—*From the New York World.*

standing. Negotiations are already believed to be in progress looking to an amicable adjustment. Neither power is desirous of a crisis, still less of conflict.

Isthmian Problems and the New Commission

The complete reorganization of the isthmian canal commission should insure more efficient prosecution of the great enterprise and a more rapid rate of progress. Congress, owing to a difference between the House and the Senate over proposed measures legislating the commission out of existence and giving the President plenary power to direct the canal work and govern the "zone," failed to enact any canal bill. There is now no express legislation for the government of the zone, while the construction of the waterway is controlled by the faulty and antiquated "Spooner" act which was passed before the Panama Republic was formed and the present route selected.

While the Spooner act vests considerable power and discretion in the President with reference to construction work, it provides for a commission of seven members. It is generally believed that a commission of three would discharge the duties involved far better. At any rate, the old commission, though composed of able and eminent men, disappointed the President, and he decided to retire it.

The new commission will work under a new plan. Three of the members will form a sort of directorate, each having his special sphere of activity. Mr. Shonts, a railway man, will be the president and fiscal head; Mr. Wallace, chief engineer, will have charge of the construction work, and Mr. Magoon, legal expert, will govern the zone and direct the administration of the laws therein. The other members, distinguished engineers, will execute duties assigned to them by the President.

There is to be created an advisory board of engineers to study the difficult technical questions presented and render assistance to the commission. Three eminent foreign engineers—a German, an Englishman and a Frenchman—will have places on the board. The chief question to be decided is whether the canal is to be one with locks or sea-level with one tide lock. Mr. Wallace favors a sea-level canal, but he realizes that a thorough preliminary inquiry is necessary. There are other problems of a similar nature demanding experience, skill and knowledge. For a year or two work can go on without reference to the ultimate solution of the "level" question.

THEODORE P. SHONTS
Chairman of the Panama Canal Commission.

The sanitary arrangements in the zone have been severely criticised by physicians who have visited the isthmus, but the administration assures us that in this direction excellent work has been done. The death rate has been materially reduced, and the health of the laborers and employees has been reasonably good. There is need of several thousand additional "diggers," and the employment of Japanese and Chinese is favored by the commission.

New Political Tendencies and Corporate Alarm

The Chicago election, the issues of which we set forth in a previous issue, has, not unnaturally challenged national attention. Radicals assert that it sounded the knell of private ownership and management of public utilities. There is not, they say, a city in the United States, which would not, if afforded the chance, vote as Chicago did—for the municipal-

ization of street railways, gas and electric lighting, etc. Washington correspondents, without necessarily concurring in this belief, predict that municipal, state and national ownership of public utilities will be a great political issue three years hence. To this forecast, indeed, color is lent by the spirit and tone of the addresses delivered at the Chicago Jefferson anniversary celebration. Mayor Dunne, Mayor Johnson of Cleveland and Mr. Bryan were the chief speakers, and they not only demanded aggressive radicalism from the Democratic party (in striking contrast with eastern appeals for "safe and sane" conservatism in politics), but specifically indorsed government ownership of railroads, etc., as the cardinal plank of the next platform of the national Democracy.

THE LATE JOSEPH JEFFERSON

These signs and symptoms have alarmed conservative organs and circles. Articles and interviews on the dangers of municipal ownership and national ownership are appearing in the press, and the people are warned that the "new policy" means bureaucratic despotism, spoils, waste and inefficiency.

Can the tendency in question be checked? it is asked. What is the alternative? Of course, not conversion to theoretical socialism is responsible for the popular revolt against private ownership in the public utility field. It is the abuses and oppressive and reckless practises of the corporations enjoying special privileges that have exhausted the public patience and produced the explosion. Inflation, extortion, "high finance," corruption of public bodies through crude or subtle forms of bribery, lobbying—these are the factors in the process. The public will no longer be robbed and deceived and mocked. If the private corporations will not give it decent treatment, the ballot will be used to oust them from the field of quasi-monopoly and put public representatives in control. Realizing this, fair-minded organs of moderate opinion are addressing impressive appeals to the enfranchised corporations. In the name not only of justice and patriotism, but of enlightened self-interest as well, they urge consideration for the public and reasonable behavior generally. At the same time the need of more effective and stringent control of public service companies is admitted by these organs. Such control, they aver, is possible, and to this remedy rather than to "socialism" on any scale popular opinion should be directed.

Here is a typical utterance, taken from an editorial in the New York *Journal of Commerce:*

It is these abuses of public utility corporations that have made their service so costly that it can be claimed that it may be provided at less cost by public authority in spite of the lack of incentive for efficiency and economy and the inducement it will afford for extravagance and inefficiency. It is this that is impelling to rash experiments in public ownership in lines in which it is opposed to sound principles and right reasoning. The evil has grown out of the failure of public intelligence and moral sense to insist upon and enforce through legislation and the administration of law a proper regulation and control of public service corporations. A similar failure in these civic forces will make of public ownership a greater evil, and bring still greater scandal and reproach upon our government methods. If these forces can be aroused to exert their proper influence in the management of public interests, they should be guided to a corrective of the evils, bringing the corporations into subjection and making them conform to just and reasonable requirements. The real issue should not be accepted as lying between the principle of municipal ownership and that of private enterprise and management, measured by the actual results of the former, but be-

tween the properly regulated and controlled exercise of franchise privileges and a public service subject to all the malign influences of city politics. The contest against the abuses of these privileged monopolies is taking a perilous direction, when it should be aimed at the correction of the abuses and the subjection of the corporations to the needed control.

The radicals meet such observations by saying that the "regulation" alternative has failed and must fail; that corporations will always abuse the power of special privilege; that whatever is natural monopoly is public, not private, business, and that there is no reason why public bodies should abdicate in favor of corporations. Monopoly is never efficient, and public management, they contend, at its worst, will be better than private monopoly; and if the people are to exercise control, they had better control their own servants than private corporations *through* their servants. Impartial observers must admit that the radicals are in the ascendant today in both political parties.

Labor Legislation and Personal Rights

Acts regulating industrial relations and restricting the hours of labor have again and again been annulled, on constitutional grounds, by the courts, state and federal. It may be said, in a general way, that the tendency of our courts is still strongly "individualistic," and that the presumption with them is that so-called labor legislation is paternalistic, improper and un-American.

In spite of this, however, great surprise, not to say apprehension and displeasure, was excited among workingmen and social reformers by the decision of the United States Supreme Court, rendered a few weeks ago, in the case of a New York citizen, a baker, who had been fined for violation of the state law prohibiting the employment of persons for more than sixty hours a week, or ten hours a day, in any bakery or confectionery establishment, even with the employees' consent.

This act was stubbornly contested in the state courts, but the Court of Appeals upheld it as a proper and valid exercise by the legislature of the police power. The right of free contract and the rights of property and personal liberty are, of course, not absolute. It is well known that they may be interfered with and restricted in the interest of public health, order or morals. Restriction of female and child labor is based on the doctrine of the police power of the states. So are anti-usury laws, vaccination laws, and others "too numerous to mention." Some years ago the Supreme Court sustained what was regarded even by reformers as a radical act, a new departure in American legislation—the Utah law prescribing eight hours for adult employees (even males) in mining and smelter establishments. It held that even if men were willing to work longer hours, the state had the authority to restrain and prevent them in the interest of society, of posterity, because in mines and smelters a longer working day than eight hours could not fail to injure the employees' health and shorten their lives.

CHARLES E. MAGOON
Governor of the Canal Zone.

In the New York case, however, the same court (four justices dissenting) was unable to discover a reason for viewing the act regarding bakeries as an exercise of the police power. Disregarding the decision of the highest court of the state, the court said (Justice Peckham, a Democrat, reading the prevailing opinion he had prepared):

"The question whether this act is valid as a labor law pure and simple may," he said, "be dismissed in a few words. There is no reasonable ground for interfering with the liberty of persons or the right of free contract by determining the hours of labor in the occupation of a baker. Bakers are in no sense wards of the state. Viewed in the light of a purely labor law, with no reference whatever to the question of health, we think that a law like the one before us involves neither the safety, the morals, nor the welfare of the public, and that the interest of the public is not in the slightest degree affected by such an act.

HON. JAMES WILSON
Secretary of Agriculture.

"It seems to us that the real object and purpose was simply to regulate the hours of labor between the master and his employees, all being men sui juris, in a private business, not dangerous in any degree to morals or in any real and substantial degree to the health of the employees. Under such circumstances the freedom of master and employee to contract with each other in relation to their employment and in defining the same cannot be prohibited or interfered with without violating the federal constitution."

Justices Harlan, Holmes, White and Day expressed the opinion that the case fell within the class covered by the police power. The first-named justice stated that there was ample reason for the view that more than ten hours' steady work in a bakery might endanger the health and shorten life. Moreover, there was, in his judgment another reason for sustaining the statute—namely that the New York courts had done so. In his own words:

"Let the state alone in the management of its purely domestic affairs, so long as it does not appear beyond all question that it has violated the federal constitution. This necessarily results from the principle that the health and safety of the people of a state are primarily for the state to guard and protect, and is not a matter ordinarily of concern to the national government."

Three of the dissenting justices are Republicans, yet it is from them that this recognition of "State rights" comes, while the Democratic justices (excepting Justice White) disreagarded that doctrine and sanction a reversal of the highest court of astate, in a case involving construction of a statute law and the application of the police power, by the federal Supreme Court. These facts are significant of changes in political and legal opinion.

Insurance Scandals and the Lesson

When, in December last, Commissioner Garfield (and, in a few lines, President Roosevelt) advocated federal control and supervision of the great insurance companies, whose business is national and even international, the suggestions were treated as purely academic even by those who approved them. The upheaval in the great Equitable company has made the question decidedly practical.

As that company is now being investigated by two independent agencies—the state superintendent of insurance and a directors' committee—it would be unfair to accept any of the current charges as established. But the mutual recriminations and "exposures" of the Hyde and Alexander factions admittedly contain considerable truth. The directors, under pressure of public opinion and newspaper criticism, have voted to "mutualize" the society gradually—that is, to give the policy-holders power to elect a majority of the directors; but the right to do this is being challenged in the courts. At present those who own or "control" the company's capital stock (about $100,000, all the property of the Hyde family) elect the directors, and it is charged, among other things, that several of the so-called directors are mere "dummies," men who directors are mere "dummies," who own no stock and have no will or responsibility.

Of the other charges bandied by the opposing factions are these: misuse of the funds of the company in the name of "advertising" its affairs; illicit profits realized through the sale of securities to the company by directors; wholesale nepotism; mismanagement and the payment of extravagant salaries, and so on. The exact truth may or may not be determined in the proceedings now pending; certain it is that the policy holders and the public will not permit a "whitewashing" and a suppression of the scandal. They will insist on a thorough inquiry, on the rectification of whatever may be wrong and unsound in the management of the company, and on a judicial determination of the status of the $100,000,000 "surplus," a fund accumulated in the course of years and supposed to be held in the interest of the present and future policy holders. Does any part of this fund belong to the stockholders. Can they wind up the affairs of the corporation, transfer the policies to other companies and appropriate the surplus? The right to do this has been asserted by the Hyde faction and stoutly denied by policy holders.

Be this as it may, the Equitable situation illustrates the need of more stringent regulation of insurance. "Mutualization" is generally recognized as desirable, but it might prove wholly inadequate. Policy holders vote for directors by proxy, and this, obviously, is a poor form of control. Their interests must be thoroughly protected, and either the states or the federal government will be compelled to undertake this responsibility, this function.

GIFFORD PINCHOT
Forester, U. S. Dep't of Agriculture.

The demand for stricter and more efficient official supervision and regulation is merely an aspect of the general movement for real control of powerful combinations, companies and public service corporations. The exploits of "high finance"—the use of public savings and funds by trustees to enrich themselves and their friends at the expense of the same public—have aroused the people quite as much as the abuses of the beneficiaries of special franchise—owners of public utilities managed purely for private profit, without decent regard for the rights and interests of the people who confer these franchises.

Before Congress adjourned, a senator introduced a bill for federal incorporation and supervision of insurance companies. He did this for "educational purposes." Recent developments have done more to educate the average man than a thousand such bills could have done.

RIVAL CANDIDATES

How would this be for a presidential campaign?
—*From the Minneapolis Journal.*

The Revival Winter of 1904-05

Wales has been for the last eight months in the grip of a religious revival of the sort which had come to be alluded to as "old fashioned." The central figure is a miner's son, Evan Roberts, a simple

minded, zealous, young preacher. But preaching has been subordinated to song, prayer and "testimony." Town and country populations have been equally moved, and between 75,000 and 100,000 "conversions" are reported. The phenomena of a wide spread spiritual awakening had become so rare that ministers and secular journalists went to Wales from all parts of Great Britain and even from America to observe them. While this spontaneous outburst of religious interest was taking place in rural Wales carefully organized evangelistic campaigns were being carried on in England and America. In Liverpool, London, and other English cities Dr. R. R. Torrey of Chicago with a singing evangelist has preached the "old fashioned gospel" to throngs which taxed the capacity of the largest auditoriums. These meetings courted publicity in every way known to the press agent, and were supported by a large guaranty fund.

REV. WM. J. DAWSON
Prominent revivalist.

In America the Presbyterians, Congregationalists, and Methodist Episcopalians have taken up in earnest the problem of awakening the masses to their need of personal religion. The Presbyterian General Assembly through its Evangelistic committee has inaugurated a series of union revival efforts in many large cities of the West. The Rev. J. Wilbur Chapman has been the leader and he has organized a corps of evangelistic preachers and singers, who settle down upon a city and uniting all the denominations "push things" with the energy and skill of an Oyama. Thus Kansas City, Omaha, Denver, Los Angeles, Portland (Ore.), and other cities have had the gospel message pressed to their attention with ability and strategy. The Commission on Aggressive Evangelism which was instituted by the Methodist Episcopal General Conference in 1904 has kept the subject before the churches by correspondence and through the church press. The reports from the Methodist churches indicate that revival efforts have been more numerous and more fruitful this winter than for many years past.

At the Congregational National Council in Des Moines last fall the Rev. William J. Dawson of London, formerly a Wesleyan but now a Congregationalist, produced a great impression by an address in which he called upon the churches represented there to apply themselves to evangelistic work. He has resigned his pastorate and for several months past has been conducting evangelistic services in several eastern cities, Portland (Me.), Boston, Brooklyn, New York, etc. He differs from the evangelists heretofore mentioned not in zeal or method but in doctrine. He is professedly of the new school. Accepting without controversy the new view of the Bible and the more liberal interpretation of theology, he pleads none the less earnestly for the acceptance of Christ as the personal savior of the individual.

The general opinion of those who have given attention to the religious condition of Protestant Christendom seems to be that the times are ripe for spiritual refreshment. The world's attention has been engrossed for half a century with the discoveries of science, the conquest of the material world, and the exploitation of its resources. Even in religion there has been greater enthusiasm for the study of biblical criticism and biblical archæology than for the preaching of the Gospel. The manifold outcroppings of the new desire for personal salvation within the past year have stimulated religious efforts and strengthened the hope that Christendom is on the brink of a new age of faith.

"Tainted" Money and the Churches

Much good should result from the extraordinary controversy in the Congregational Church—and in other denominations and circles—over the acceptance by the board of foreign missions of a $100,000 gift from Mr. John D. Rockefeller, head of the Standard Oil Company. There is, plainly, room for honest differences of opinion upon the question, since able and earnest men do differ, and widely, as a matter of fact; but, as the old saying has it, to present a problem accurately is half to solve it.

The original question, as put by Dr. Washington Gladden and others, is simple: Was it right for the board to solicit, or accept, Mr. Rockefeller's money? But this question leads to several others.

The argument against acceptance is this: The Standard Oil Company is notoriously a grasping, merciless, soulless monopoly. It has suppressed scores of competitors through the employment of methods that, whether legal or not, are un-Christian, immoral and dangerous. It has been accused, moreover, of persistent and constant violation of the law, especially in connection with the outrageous rebate practise and railroad discrimination. While Mr. Rockefeller himself has never been convicted of wrong doing, the monopoly whose head he is, is regarded as a notorious and contumacious law breaker. Can any church, the exponent and defender of moral law, accept favors from such a source without stultifying and dishonoring itself? Would not such acceptance imply approval or at least condonation of reprehensible and immoral practises?

Not at all, answer the spokesmen of the other side. The church condemns practises, but it cannot and does not condemn men whom it does not know, of its own knowledge, to be guilty of censurable and pernicious practises. It has no right, any more than the law has, to brand and condemn any man without trial and inquiry, on hearsay evidence and current gossip. No one has preferred charges against Mr. Rockefeller to the proper authorities of the church to which he belongs; he has not been expelled or convicted; his standing as a church member is good—as good as his legal standing; how, then, and on what grounds can a body of church trustees refuse his money? Furthermore, the money is to be devoted to religious and moral purposes; is it not the duty of the trustees to think of the purpose rather than of the possible origin of any special sum offered them?

EVAN ROBERTS
Leader of the Welsh revival.

Neither argument is conclusive; neither position is free from great difficulties. It is clear that the logic of the argument for acceptance would lead to absurd conclusions. Suppose notorious, but unconvicted, gamblers, keepers of vicious resorts, receivers of stolen goods, embezzlers, wreckers and so on should offer contributions to any religious body; could it afford to accept them? If not, where is the line to be drawn? The church, then, cannot adopt the narrow and inferior standards of the law; it is bound to be more exacting, more scrupulous, more critical and inquisitive. On the other hand, if Mr. Rockefeller's money is to be refused because of the known and suspected methods of the Standard Oil Company, what of the money of other trusts, monopolies, "high finance" gentry? What is to be the test, the rule, whereby to determine whether money is tainted or not, and how deep and serious the taint is in any case?

The discussion will stimulate thought and the use of the moral sense, but no immediate agreement is likely.

Anti-Peonage Law Upheld

A judgment of Judge Swayne in a flagrant case of peonage was set aside by the federal Supreme Court in a recent decision on purely technical grounds, a new trial being ordered. But the decision is extremely important because it fully sustains the anti-peonage acts passed by Congress nearly thirty-five and forty years ago—acts which many have believed to be unconstitutional, or, if constitutional, inadequate.

The anti-peonage law is based on the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution. It prohibits peonage in the states and territories and prescribes a fine and imprisonment for holding, arresting, or returning any person to a state of peonage. In the case in question it was contended that the law applied to states, but not to individual citizens, and to other kinds of involuntary servitude than that arising out of debts properly contracted.

The Supreme Court held that peonage was a status or condition of compulsory service based upon the indebtedness of one man to another. The mode of its origin was not essential; whether authorized by state law or not, peonage was compulsory service and as such prohibited by federal law in accordance with the Constitution. What the law intended to abolish and prevent was compulsory service to secure the payment of any debt. There is a clear distinction between peonage in this sense and the voluntary performance of labor or service in payment of a debt. In the latter category of cases the debtor could break his contract, no law compelling him to perform it; he was merely subject, in such an event, to an action for damages. To this rule there are some well established exceptions, but it is a rule nevertheless. The peon is not permitted to break his contract, he is forced to work off his debt, and this condition the law prohibits.

In the case at bar two negroes who had fled to Florida while owing debts to Georgia lumbermen, had been arrested on trumped-up charges of larceny and brought back to Georgia for the purpose of working off their debts. The evidence showed that they had been subjected to cruel and barbarous treatment and held in a state of peonage. It appears that fifty prosecutions at least depended upon the outcome of this test case, peonage having been practised quite extensively in several southern states. The decision should put a stop to the inhuman and discreditable practise. It doubtless will, the court having given the law a broad construction and thereby having made it effective.

NIAGARA FALLS—AS THE NEW YORK LEGISLATURE WOULD HAVE THEM?
—From the Chicago Record-Herald.

What the Paragraphers Say

ENVOI TO THE PRESIDENT—

Going back to Washington,
Going where the bears are tame,
But it's whispered on the quiet
He is after larger game.

—Chicago News.

IN CHICAGO—"Ye're a scab."
"Oi'm not."
"Didn't yez take me place?"
"Yis; but Oi belongs to de strikebreakers' union."—*Louisville Courier-Journal.*

Kaiser Wilhelm is able to see several points of resemblance between Japan and the late Mr. Attila, the notorious Hun, who also was something of a Peril in his day.

The Story of a Tree as Told by Its Log

By Professor Charles F. Millspaugh

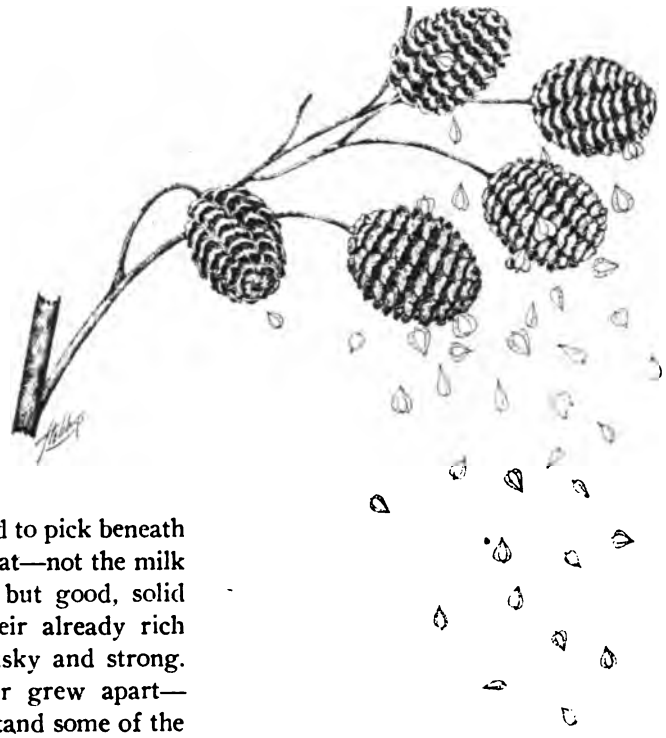
Curator of Botany, Field Columbian Museum.

The annual rings of a tree reveal not only the number of years it has existed; but also, by their lesser or greater widths, various other facts and factors of interest. So fully do these rings record the life of the tree, and the influences that have worked for or against its growth, that they may be considered to be a graphic autobiography.

MY parents' name was Alder—Saw-tooth Alder if you please, because the edges of our leafy lungs are cut into many sharp little teeth. Mind you we did not call ourselves that, our language is too soft and sighing in its tones for such a name. It was given us by the destructive animal called white-man, who came into our country long after our friends and companions the red-men ceased to live under our sheltering branches; they had named us "Q'al" which I think is much prettier. We grew far north on a beautiful, green island called Queen Charlotte, where our Indian companions lived on fish and berries: luscious strawberries, gooseberries and shalons, that they used to pick beneath our shade and mix with fat—not the milk fat that you call cream, but good, solid seal fat that warmed their already rich blood and made them husky and strong.

My father and mother grew apart—not gradually as I understand some of the white children's parents sometimes do, but always, for we know that crowding warps us and makes us gnarly and ugly. Every spring, when the cold, dark days of sleeptime were past and the sun sent the life blood rushing up from his warming feet to the very tips of his extended fingers, my father would put out his hundreds of silken flowers and send to mother's waiting lips by each gentle breeze his message of love, which she joyfully wafted back with a thankful rustle of her soft new leaves.

We were a large family, each year thousands of us children were sent abroad to shift for ourselves. We were delicate little things then, seeds with gossamer wings, and mother nurtured us fondly in strong little cone-like swinging cradles until we were old enough to fly. Then



on a dry autumnal day when the wind was high she would spread her arms, give us her last blessing, and shake us loose on the breeze. Those of us who were too timid to fly far enough, and those who unfortunately fell upon the rocks, died of starvation; those who were too adventurous and flew far out into the lake, or farther still to the great ocean beyond, struggled a while, then drowned; those who attracted the sharp eyes of the little birds, who always enjoy our tender flesh, were quickly devoured; while even

many of us who managed to alight in a pretty good bit of soil someway failed to get started right and also perished; so each year but few of the large family really managed to get a sufficient start in the world to amount to much. I was one of the lucky ones and dropped in a nice, soft, damp spot between three little pebbles where the birds could not find me; then too the snow soon came, and buried me so deep that I fell into a slumber that lasted all winter. When the good old sun, our comforter and life giver, warmed the dewy air of spring, I felt so softened and full of life that I burst the seams of my winter coat, a present from mother, thrust my tender little tongue-like rootlet deep into the sweet, moist earth and drank deeply of its rich humus nourishment. It was like your bouillon, so invigorating that I soon grew strong in the joy of it and putting forth two tender leaves I took in my first sweet breath of the glorious air. As these lungs grew strong I felt so brave and happy that within a month I ventured another pair, then settled down to a thankful life shaded from the too ardent sun by the friendly little pebbles that surrounded me.

As the autumn days grew on, that first year, I felt a peculiar contracting sensation in all my veins; my heart impulses gradually became less as the days grew chill until I fell into a troubled sleep, restless and full of frightful dreams. I thought that my lungs dried up and blew away; that my skin was very cold and crackly all over; and that I was withal so parched and thirsty! Then I felt a comforting warmth that reminded me of the kind snow that covered me the year before and my sleep fell peaceful and dreamless as if I were dead. I awoke with a start, I don't know how long after; funny little itching swellings came out in several places along my slender body, and at its very tip, that made me uneasy. As my pulses began to stir, and my veins to expand and fill, these swellings pained me with their oppressive throbbing; this grew rapidly worse until finally, one warm, moist day when I felt nearly suffocated, they all burst open and I breathed again. Then I began my diary—Oh yes we do, all trees keep a diary—and some day when you become sufficiently learned you will be able to read the neatly inscribed pages where we keep a faithful account of the years of strengthening rain; the severity of the cold seasons; the years when the sun was at his best; the dry seasons when we were kept on awfully short rations; and many other things, good and bad, that we forget so soon when the joy or sadness of the present is upon us.

Happy as I was in this new life yet I had my troubles that year. The three pebbles seemed very close together now and pressed so hard that they made my sides ache. They cramped me and, as you may see recorded in the very center of my diary, they even made me angular

and ugly in shape. As I grew more robust I finally conquered them, pushed them aside and was free, but it took me another whole year to get rid of the disfigurement and grow round and smooth as good alders always do.

Each year up to my ninth I grew rapidly and became strong in my body which proved very necessary, for I had many limbs to put forth that I might have fuller lung expanse and a fitting circulation for one so healthy and vigorous. Just look at my diary and see what fine rings I made, increasing my girth full three-quarters of one of your inches every year—and *our* years for growth are only four months long on Queen Charlotte; the balance of your year we spend in restful, dreamless sleep. When I was nine years old I fell in love with a beautiful cousin of mine who grew so close, just east of me, that that year our trunks touched. So ardently did we lean toward each other that you will see I became considerably flattened on that side. So did she, the attachment was mutual. I became so engrossed in this love affair that I nearly lost my appetite, just as you white men do under the same circumstances, and though the end of summer found me anxious for the wedding I was considerably impoverished, through my devotion, and dwarfed in my resources. You older folks will understand my condition I'm sure. Our marriage took place, a quiet event which few of my neighbors seemed to notice, and the next year we raised our first family. This so sapped my strength that I hardly grew a quarter so much as in my carefree years; the smaller ring in my diary plainly shows the effect that my inexperience and the added responsibilities of a large family had upon my growth. It took me three years to become accustomed to caring and providing nourishment for a yearly increase of hungry and clamoring children before I succeeded in returning to my former vigor and tone.

Then another trouble befell me. One of my red friends while hunting a caribou, that came over the ice that year, succeeded only in wounding the great beast, which, turning upon him before he could escape, quickly killed him with its great horns. His friends finding him near my feet built a high scaffold under my branches and laid his body and all his belongings upon it. In doing this they so deeply drove a heavy support near my trunk that I could not push it away, and this not only cramped and galled me but it made an ugly depression in my side almost opposite the loving impression of my mate. This continued until my death, for I never succeeded in pushing the stake aside and it proved, in part at least, responsible for my untimely end.

By glancing at my diary, which is placed before you oriented like your school maps, you will see how these depressions affected my otherwise true outline; you will also note that on the north and west I increased much less in bulk than on the south: that is because the warm sun expanded my veins much more where his genial beams shone full upon me most of the day. This fact made my family and all the neighboring trees excellent guides for our red friends who, on their long hunts, consulted us instead of your magnetic compass to guide them through the forest. They always knew by our shape and by the moss that grew upon our north sides (a great comfort in winter I tell you) just which direction to take to find their way back home. If I had lived to a fair old age as I gave promise of doing you would have found my bark much thicker on the north side where I most needed its protection, and my diary would have had many more stories and facts to give you.

In the autumn of my twentieth year a white man, called a professor, a man unusually harmless by nature, came, guided by a red man, to look at the scaffold grave at my side. While this professor, an ethnologist I think you call him, was gloating over the things that had been

buried with the body of the red hunter, his companion called his attention to me by placing a warm hand affectionately upon my smooth bark and saying: "This is the kind of wood from which we make the bowls and spoons with which we eat polmuk and tsilwit." "Ah," said the professor, "that is very interesting. I do not know much about trees so I will cut it down and take a section of it to my friend the botanist, then I shall know how to properly label the utensils I have secured." I hated his hard, dry words, even though I did not know their meaning, until he took from his belt a sharp, shining thing, and struck me an awful blow that nearly cut me through, making me tremble to my very top and so weak that I but little felt the other hurts; then with a fearful shock the longest sleep of all came upon me. . . . . All that is left of the Alder tree is a small section of its trunk now placed in a museum with some wooden bowls and spoons of the Haida. From this the page of its diary was taken, a page that tells, by its beautifully regular rings, the story of its shortened but eventful life.

Legends of the Trees

By Vincent Van Marter Beede

"There grew a goodly tree him faire beside,
Loaden with fruit and apples rosy redd,
As they in pure vermilion had beene dide,
Whereof great vertues over-all were redd:
For happy life to all which thereon fedd,
And life eke everlasting did befall:
Great God it planted in that blessed stedd
With His Almighty hand, and did it call
The Tree of Life, the crime of our first Father's fall."

—*Spenser, "The Faerie Queene." Bk. I Canto* XI.

THE Buddhist of India tells us that the fig, or peepul, is the supreme Tree of Life; and this plant is more venerated than any other that springs from the ground. Gautama, the great Burmese deity, slept under the fig tree and dreamed that the Earth was his bed, and the Himalayas were his pillow; that his left arm extended to the Eastern Ocean, his right arm to the Western Ocean, and his feet to the Great South Sea; and that ultimately he would become a Buddha (Wise One). When the prophecy was fulfilled, Gautama was seated once more beneath this same tree. Vishnu, the Preserver—who with Brahma and Siva compose the Divine Triad of Hinduism—Vishnu, according to some accounts, was born under the peepul tree Rarvasit, signifying Knowledge and Wisdom. The Indian fig tree is lofty, evergreen, April-flowering, with an acrid milk that contains India rubber. The long, heart-shaped, vibrating leaves are not unlike those of the poplar. In 250 B. C. a branch of the wondrous dream-tree of Gautama was sent to Amuradhapoora, the sacred city of Ceylon, in company with the good man's collar-bone, begging-dish, and other relics. When the new tree had risen it was named the Holy Bo, and today, so far as we can learn, the "great, famous, and triumphant fig tree," shrine of ceaseless pilgrims, watcher of ruins

such as Kipling describes in "The King's Ankus," is "perhaps the oldest and most venerated idol in the world."

Tsong Kaba, founder of the Yellow Cap Lamas, became a Buddha so late as the fifteenth century. Born an albino, he was not shaved until he was three years old. "From this hair there forthwith sprung a tree, the wood of which dispensed an exquisite perfume around, and each leaf of which bore, engraved on its surface, a character in the sacred language of Tibet." The Abbè Huc visited this very tree, which stands near the Buddhist convent of the Ten Thousand Images, and he bears testimony to beholding Tibetan characters on each leaf in light green and dark. Stranger still, he pried up the bark and was astonished by the sight of symbols germinating in the reddish, cinnamon-scented wood! The trunk, which three men could barely embrace, was eight feet high. In summer came the red blossoms. Thus far it has proved impossible to transplant cuttings. The Emperor Kwang-ho donated to the tree a silver dome and the support of three hundred lamas.

The ruined city of Padjajarian, on the island of Java, is visited by many pilgrims because of a sacred *Ficus* which one traveler has called "the Vegetable Giant." The Mahomedan priests exhibit the footprint in stone of some Titanic island hero who walked in the neighborhood of the tree, which in reality is two trees of the same genus, but of different species. The dual nature is curiously apparent in the differing shades of green in the leaves. The spirits of the dead are thought to hover in the branches. The celebrated botanist, C. L. Blume, was permitted to climb the venerated growth after incense had been burned at its foot. The capacious limbs were found to be a marvelous "garden in the air," the home of at least thirty-four species of plants, including the beautiful *Fagræa auriculata* of Thunberg.

The Tree of Life of the Northern mythologies is Yggdrasil, which almost every authority terms an ash, although one writer speaks in favor of the *Robur Jovis* (Oak of Jupiter), and of that sacred oak of Geismar which St. Boniface cut down. Yggdrasil sprang from the body of the giant Ymir. The three roots of the honey-dripping ash extend, one to Asgard, the dwelling of the gods, another to Jotunheim, the giant world, a third to Niffleheim, where reign darkness and cold. Under the root of the Jotunheim is Ymir's Well of Wisdom. The spring of Niffleheim feeds the adder Nidhogge (Darkness), that gnaws forever at the Tree of Life. Four stags—the Winds—gambol eternally among the branches and crop the buds, and the nimble squirrel Ratatöskr carries endless strife from the eagle at the top to the serpent at the foot.

"The tree Yggdrasil
Bears a sorer burden
Than men imagine;
Above the stags bite it,
On its sides age rots it,
Nidhogge gnaws below."
—*Eddas (Anderson).*

The branches shelter the three sister Norns—Present, Past, and Future—in their home, Doomstead, where they sit spinning the events of man's life,

"By the Urdar forest dwelling,
Day by day from the rill,
The Nornas besprinkle
The ash Yggdrasil."
—*Lord Lytton, "Harold," VII.*

Stories of the ash, apart from those of Yggdrasil, differ extraordinarily in their praise and dispraise. Thus, "the Venus of the Forest" is the same wood of which Jove made the third, or brazen race of men, and Cupid his arrows before he fancied the more deadly cypress. Pliny wrote that if a serpent and a fire were both surrounded by twigs of ash, the serpent would rather die in the flames than attempt to pass the dreaded barrier. On the other hand, Discorides recommends mingled wine and the juice of ash-leaves as an antidote for snake-bite. In the Highlands, strength is imparted to a new-born babe by feeding it a spoonful of

ash-juice that has been procured from the end of a heated stick.

Perhaps the most powerful modern legend of the ash is to be found in George Macdonald's little-appreciated "Phantastes, a Faerie Romance for Men and Women:"

When she shone out again, with a brilliancy increased by the contrast, I saw plainly on the path before me,—from around which at this spot the trees receded, leaving a small space of green sward,—the shadow of a large hand, with knotty joints and protuberances, here and there. Especially I remarked, even in the midst of my fear, the bulbous points of the fingers. I looked hurriedly all round, but could see nothing from which such a shadow should fall. . . . Still the shadow remained; not steady, but moving to and fro; and once I saw the fingers close, and grind themselves close, like the claws of a wild animal, as if in uncontrollable longing for some anticipated prey. . . . . Good heavens! what did I see? I wonder that ever I arose, and that the very shadow of the hand did not hold me where I lay until fear had frozen my brain. I saw the strangest figure,—vague, shadowy, almost transparent in the central parts, and gradually deepening in substance toward the outside, until it ended in extremities capable of casting such a shadow as fell from the hand, through the awful fingers of which I now saw the moon. The hand was uplifted in the attitude of a paw about to strike its prey. But the face, which throbbed with fluctuating and pulsatory visibility,—not from changes in the light it reflected, but from changes in its own conditions of reflecting power, the alterations being from within, not from without,—it was horrible. It caused a new sensation; just as one cannot translate a horrible odor, or a ghastly pain, or a fearful sound, into words, so I cannot describe this new form of awful hideousness. . . . It reminded me of what I had heard of vampires; for the face resembled that of a corpse more than anything else I can think of; especially when I can conceive such a face in motion, but not suggesting any life as the source of motion. The features were rather handsome than otherwise, except the mouth, which had scarcely a curve in it. The lips were of equal thickness; but the thickness was not at all remarkable, even although they looked slightly swollen. They seemed fixedly open, but were not wide apart. . . . But the most awful features of the face were the eyes. These were alive, yet not with life. They seemed lighted up with an infinite greed. A gnawing voracity, which devoured the devourer, seemed to be the indwelling and propelling power of the whole ghastly apparition. . . . All I saw was the hand within three feet of my face. But, at the same moment, I felt two large, soft arms thrown around me from behind; and a voice, like a woman's, said, "Do not fear the goblin; he dares not hurt you now." With that the hand was suddenly withdrawn as from a fire, and disappeared in the darkness and rain. . . . I had let her talk on, for her voice was like a solution of all musical sounds. . . . As gently as I could, I cut with a knife a long tress of flowing, dark hair, she hanging her beautiful head over me. When I had finished, she shuddered and breathed deep, as one does when an acute pain, steadfastly endured without sign of suffering, is at length relaxed. She then took the hair and tied it around me, singing a strange, sweet song which I could not understand. . . . At last I had fallen asleep; for I knew nothing more that passed, till I found myself lying under a superb beech tree, in the clear light of the morning, just before sunrise. Around me was a girdle of fresh, beech leaves. . . . With the sun well risen, I rose, and put my arms as far as they would reach around the beech tree, and kissed it, and said good-by. A trembling went through the leaves; a few of the last drops of the night's rain fell from off them at my feet; and, as I walked slowly away, I seemed to hear in a whisper once more the words: "I may love him, I may love him; for he is a man, and I am only a beech tree."

The alder as described in "Phantastes," is, if anything, even more loathly than the ash:

The lady glided round by the wall from behind me, still keeping her face towards me, and seated herself in the farthest corner, with her back to the lamp, which she hid completely from my view. I then saw indeed a form of perfect loveliness before me. Almost it seemed as if the light of the rose lamp shone through her

(for it could not be reflected from her), such a delicate shade of pink seemed to shadow what in itself must be a marbly whiteness of hue. . . . I woke as a gray dawn stole into the cave. The damsel had disappeared; but, in the shrubbery at the mouth of the cave, stood a strange, horrible object. It looked like an open coffin set up on end, only that the part for the head and neck was defined from the shoulder part. In fact it was a rough representation of the human form, only hollow, as if made of decaying bark torn from a tree. It had arms, which were only slightly seamed, down from the shoulder blades to the elbow, as if the bark had healed again from the cut of a knife. But the arms moved, and the hands and fingers were tearing asunder a long, silky tress of hair. The thing turned round; it had for a face and front those of my enchantress, now of a pale greenish hue in the light of the morning, and with dead, lustreless eyes. . . . My beauty was the maid of the Alder! . . . .

According to an Aryan tradition, the rowan, or mountain ash, is a protection against lightning and the darker powers; and this is the tree of Thor, the Thunder God of the North. Rowans are found in the vicinity of Druidic circles. At Strathspey, England, on May day, sheep are made to pass through hoops of rowan at morning and night in order that lambs and wool may prove abundant during the coming year. Such enemies are the mountain ash and the juniper that a tree standing between them will be cleft asunder; yet sailors have thought that both of these woods must be on the vessel if it is to be immune from going down to Davy Jones' Locker.

It is Tennyson's "Amphion" that invests the tree cult of old Greece with a delicate and lifelike humor:

"Whenever, in a lonely grove,
He set up his forlorn pipes,
The gouty oak began to move,
And flounder into hornpipes.
The mountain stirred its bushy crown,
And, as tradition teaches,
Young ashes pirouetted down,
Coquetting with young beeches,
And briony vine and ivy wreath
Ran forward to his rhyming,
And from the valleys underneath
Came little copses climbing.
The birch tree swang her fragrant hair,
The bramble cast her berry,
The gin within the juniper
Began to make him merry.
The poplars, in long order due,
With cypress promenaded;
The shockhead willows, two and two,
By rivers galopaded.
Came wet-shod alder from the wave,
Came yews a dismal coterie;
Each plucked his one foot from the grave,
Poussetting with the sloe tree.
Old elms came breaking from the vine,
The vines streamed out to follow,
And, sweating rosin, plumped the pine
From many a cloudy hollow."

It has been well pointed out that the apple tree has the most glorious history, in spite of the acknowledged might and grandeur of the oak. Symbolic of man's temptation and of Venus' love, the apple is the fruit of Solomon, and Hercules, and Ulysses, and the food which ever evades the unhappy Tantalus. The space of this article might profitably be taken up with the lore of the fruit that is most beneficent to man. In the face of our regard for the apple it is odd to read that the angel Azrael holds it beneath the nostrils of the dying. Not to tell the familiar tales of the apple of Discord, and the golden apples of the Hesperides and Atalanta, it may yet be interesting to recall the reason why the apple became associated with the Theban Hercules, who was known as Melius. It appears that once the Asopus overflowed and prevented the bringing across of sheep to the altar of the strong demi-god. Some suggested that "melon," the word for "sheep," was identical with that for "apples." Thus were sacrificed apples fitted with twigs for legs, and the symbolic sheep became the customary offering.

The goddess Iduna, of the Scandinavian myths, was guardian of those apples which the gods ate as a precaution against death. Loki, god of strife and spirit of evil, carried off the fruit, and everything went wrong among gods and men until the dwellers in Asgard were able to recover their sorely-needed aliment. The Druids paid reverence to the mistletoe that clung to the apple tree and

the oak, and on Christmas Eve in Devonshire, farmers sprinkle with cider the honored tree of Pomona and then dance around the knotted trunk. Sir John Mandeville tells us that the pigmies were nourished by the mere scent of the apples of Pyban. In England, girls are known to stick sweetheart-named apple seeds on their foreheads, the seed that sticks the longest indicates the bridegroom; and on New Year's night the Silesian girls place apples underneath their pillows to promote dreams of a husband. Most pathetic of all, the hand of more than one dead child of Silesia clasps an apple with which it may play in Paradise.

Ovid's tale of Erisichthon and the oak gives a vivid impression of the ancient regard for Jove's own tree. Erisichthon, who cared neither for gods nor men, ordered his servants to level a grove that was sacred to Ceres. When he saw them hesitate to attack "a venerable oak, so large that it seemed a wood in itself," he seized the axe. A bystander, in horror of the sacrilege, took hold of the weapon, only to have it strike off his head. Soon the oak was prostrate. "Then"—to quote from Bulfinch—"from the midst of the oak came a voice: 'I who dwell in this tree am a nymph beloved by Ceres, and, dying by your hands, forewarn you that punishment awaits you.'"

The sister Dryads implored Ceres to revenge the fearful act of impiety, and the goddess condemned Erisichthon to eternal famine. Poisoned by an insatiable appetite, he spent everything he had on food which gave him no satisfaction, and finally he sold his own daughter. She, standing by the seaside, implored Neptune to deliver her from slavery, and she was transformed into a fisherman. To the questioning of her master she replied: "I wish I may never catch another fish if I believe any woman or other person except myself to have been hereabouts for some time." Changed into her usual self once more, she was re-sold by Erisichthon, then re-metamorphosed. The process went on until the father's desire for food grew so prodigious that he began to devour his own body, and thus died.

To the Druids the oak probably signified the Supreme Being, and the mistletoe, man's dependence on him. In Westphalia the survivors of a family have the custom of addressing the nearest oak with the words: "The master is dead! The master is dead!" and in other parts of Germany holes of the oak, lime, and pine are looked upon as pathways of the elves. Sickly children are dragged through the openings in the belief that the tree has curative powers.

The myrtle was the tree of Venus, either because she sprang from the sea-foam with myrtle leaves on her brow, or because, out of pity, she transformed the maiden Myrsine, first loved, and then abused by Minerva, into a myrtle tree. In some parts of Greece, Venus was known as Myrtilla. Held up to the light, a myrtle leaf appears to be riddled. The story goes that Phaedra, wife of Theseus, was enamoured of her stepson, Hippolytus, and that while the youth was exercising his horses in the arena, she amused herself by pricking myrtle leaves with a hair-pin.

The laurel, or sweet bay, was adopted by Apollo in memory of the nymph Daphne, who, eluding his eager embrace, was changed into this tree. That the Greeks hung laurel over their doorways in order to ward off lightning and evil spirits is less known to us than that among the ancients it was the symbol of victory and of clemency. Dispatches announcing victory were wrapped in laurel leaves, triumphant Roman generals were crowned with it, and the rank and file carried sprigs of it. The victor in the Pythian games of Greece was wreathed in honor with laurel, but it must not be forgotten that the winners in the Olympian contests wore wild olive leaves, and that for the illustrious of the Nemean and Isthmian games the rewards were parsley and green pine leaves. Laurel

leaves under one's pillow were said to inspire immortal verses. During the middle ages poets were crowned with the laurel and its berries, hence the expressions, "Poet Laureate," and the word, "bachelor," from the Latin *baccalaureus,* meaning "laurel berry." And since a student was expected to waste no time by the family hearth, "bachelor" came to signify an unmarried man.

The tenth labor of Hercules was taking captive the oxen of the monster Geryon. While the hero slept, the giant Cacus carried off part of the cattle to his cave, which was concealed by white poplars, and it was a branch of this tree with which Hercules bound his brow after he had slain the monster. The twelfth and last labor of Alcides was the bringing up from Hades of the three-headed dog Cerberus, guardian of the home of the dead. On his triumphal return the hero wore a wreath of white poplar. Sweat had bleached the inner side of the leaves, and the smoke of the infernal regions had blackened the upper surface, in which state the leaves have ever after been. All persons sacred to Hercules were adorned with white poplar; and many a glorious conqueror wore it.

And the black poplar was not without honor. The Heliades, sisters of the ill-fated Phaeton, were transformed into this tree.

"Him the Thunderer hurled
From the empyrean headlong to the gulf
Of the half-parched Eridanus, where weep
Even now the sister trees their amber tears
O'er Phaeton untimely dead."

—*Milman.*

Black poplar leaves actually exude moisture; and on this tree the sun shines most brightly.

These are but a few of the notable legends of the trees.

"Much can they praise the trees so straight and hy:
The sayling pine; the cedar proud and tall;
The vine-propp elme; the poplar never dry;
The builder oake, sole king of forrests all;
The aspine good for staves; the cypresse funerall;

"The laurell, meed of mightie conquerours
And poets sage; the firre that weepeth still;
The willow, worne of forlorn paramours;
The eugh, obedient to the benders will;
The birch for shaftes; the sallow for the mill;
The mirrhe sweete-bleeding in the bitter wound;
The warlike beech; the ash for nothing ill;
The fruitfull olive; and the platane round;
The carver holme; the maple seeldom inward sound."

—*Spenser, "The Faerie Queene," Bk.* I, *Canto* I.

DWARF OR MUGHO PINE (NEEDLE EVERGREEN)
Photo. by Mrs. Seavey.

Trees on Small Home Grounds

By Frances Copley Seavey

"As trees are, after the surface of the ground, the most permanent element of the landscape, they ought to be planted with careful deliberation as to the intended artistic effect and their fitness to the soil and climatic conditions, for mistakes in planting trees are afterwards not easily corrected and rarely without injury to the original artistic design."

—*Cyclopedia of American Horticulture.*

PEOPLE who are deprived of intimate, friendly relations with trees are doubly unfortunate. They not only miss some of life's pleasantest occupations, associations, and memories, but they never make the real acquaintance of trees, the noblest and most human of earth's ornaments. Trees rarely mean anything more to them than poles, ties, lumber, or firewood, while to the initiated they appear what they are—living entities possessing more or less subtle personalities which influence in some degree, and always beneficially, every human being who knows them well.

It goes without saying that all home grounds should possess trees suited to their area, character, location, and needs. This is generally admitted, but, as an authority has said, "It is not so much in this day that there is a lack of planting, as that planting is meaningless"—evidently without intelligent intention or definite purpose. This is, perhaps, more true of trees than of any other class of planting material, because trees are more generally planted and because, having greater size and longer life, the bad results of haphazard, thoughtless, or ignorant placing become in time painfully pronounced. Examples in proof of this fact are not far to seek. They multiply themselves on all sides. Everywhere are seen mutilated trees, the branches of which have been unceremoniously lopped off (almost invariably without regard for the scientific methods of doing such work which would preserve the life of the remainder of the tree) because they interfere with practical affairs; and every-

WINTER FOLIAGE

Photo. by Mrs. Eugene Kieckhoefer.

AN OPEN AIR READING ROOM
Photo. by Mrs. Seavey.

where are seen houses or other buildings with the sunlight shut out and desirable views closed off as effectually as by walls of stone or of brick, by trees, fine in themselves, so good, indeed, that people hesitate to do what is obviously the proper thing—to cut them down. For full grown trees sometimes command the respect and consideration denied them in youth and immaturity—but not always. It is on record that an august white oak, one of the few remaining specimens of these venerable aristocrats of the eastern United States, which antedate the landing of Columbus, was cut down a few years ago by its vandal owner for the value of the fire wood it contained: such a tree as Inness loved to paint, whose grandeur and presence, by the genius of the painter, are felt even from the canvas.

The problem of choosing trees and placing them on small home grounds is one that demands especially careful consideration. First, what purposes are the proposed trees designed to fill, and are these purposes legitimate? Second, where must they be placed to best serve those purposes? Third, what specimens and varieties will most fully answer the practical and the esthetic requirements? Anyone who delves into the merits of the matter to the point of figuring out reasonable and honest replies to this short but all important list, really needs only a few hints to produce on any given plot something worth while.

On very small inclosures, particularly if closely encompassed by grounds already containing trees, the selection is restricted to sorts that make only moderate growth, say thirty or forty feet; while but one, or possibly two

PLAY GROUNDS FOR CHILDREN
Photo. by Mrs. Eugene Kieckhoefer.

"OPEN CENTER" EFFECT
Vines "knit the house closely to its site." The background of small trees is in this case rather too close for the best results.

home door yard boasts a "pussy willow," flowering trees, trees producing fruits either edible or ornamental, or nut trees, is likely to be a home-lover as well as an extremely popular resident of any "Boy's Town." All these things are equally attractive to girls and are by no means disagreeable to "grown ups," while they are loved alike by birds, beasts, butterflies, and bees. This sort of planting also furnishes shaded nooks for hammocks and easy chairs, sheltered playgrounds for the children, which may readily be planned to accommodate tennis and croquet; and drying grounds, screened from the public eye, should always be provided in a location where the trees, or hooks on buildings, or vine-covered posts, shall replace the unsightly conventional clothes line posts.

In such a home the trees are members of the family. They and the children grow up together and receive almost equal consideration. The boys haunt the branches of oak and of elm; for the girls, Lady Linden, in her roomy corner, trails *tilleul* robes, like the sweeping gown of a princess across the lawn; while the little ones seek shelter from sun and shower beneath the natural umbrellas of picturesque thorn or dense dwarf trees. And from neither boys or girls will these memories depart while life endures. To them the oaks of later years rustle an old, familiar greeting, and the hum of myriads of bees among honey scented linden blossoms recalls visions of youth's bright fairy-land.

It is well to remember that in the selection of trees, as of all planting material, there is practical and esthetic advantage in choosing native species, varieties that do, or might, grow in the immediate vicinity. They will be more likely to thrive and they will always look well because they are in harmony with the landscape and with the spirit of the location. It is accounted an evidence of fine feeling to appreciate the simple, native growths because they have the rare and enduring beauty of fitness. It is a horticultural expression of the simple life.

Some Historical Trees

By Mrs. Herman J. Hall

NOT long ago a philosopher from Harvard College was heard to say: "The American is an idealist but he finds it difficult to put his ideals into practical life," We love natural beauty, yet we have recklessly destroyed our forests and, with very few exceptions, have failed to preserve the single growths which would have been fitter monuments to the history of our cities and towns than the noblest of architecture or the most elaborate of sculpture.

But though existing specimens which have witnessed the stirring events of past centuries are few, we should preserve their memories in song and story by brush and chisel in order to inspire Americans with a more intimate knowledge and a greater love for trees.

The dramatic passing of a tree is recorded by the historians of Hartford, Connecticut. "The hero fell as the storm king passed," was the leading thought on the morning of August 21, 1856, when the townspeople were summoned to hear an oration over the prostrate trunk of their treasure, the "Charter Oak," whose age was estimated at nearly two thousand years and whose roots extended over a hillside to a ravine below. The red man had cherished this growth as his agricultural calendar before the white intruder

took possession of the land, and had planted his corn when the leaves had developed to a certain size. At the time when the state charter would have been confiscated by the English, a doughty patriot hid the document in the oak's hollow trunk, where it was preserved for subsequent service to the state.

Another oak which in 1884 was seventeen feet in circumference, has matured near the site of the old Eliot meeting house at Natick, and was a survivor of the "peace trees" brought to John Eliot by the Indians. Longfellow writes of this tree:

"For underneath thy shade, in days remote,
Seated like Abraham at eventide,
Beneath the oaks of Mamre, the unknown
Apostle of the Indians, Eliot, wrote
His Bible in a language that hath died
And is forgotten, save by thee alone."

The people of Dedham also cherished a white oak whose splendid proportions are etched on the town seal. Although the Waverly oaks at Beaver Brook Reservation are much larger, the smallest showing 750 rings when it fell, none equalled in beauty the Avery oak at Dedham. George Fox, the founder of the Quaker colony at Flushing, Long Island, has immortalized a huge oak, having used it as a pulpit. When four hundred years old its circumference was sixteen feet and the density of its foliage remarkable.

Next to the Charter Oak, the most important growths in Eastern States were the so-called "Liberty Trees" which were mostly elms. They were all selected because of matchless size and beauty, but the one at Providence had such spread of branch that it sheltered a large concourse of people when, in 1768, it was dedicated to the "Sons of Liberty." The great elm at the junction of Essex and Washington Streets, Boston, was utilized as a standard by representatives of this same organization whereon they hung decorations, proclamations, and effigies.

But the greatest interest is centered about the Washington elm at Cambridge, which is guarded with increasing vigilance as the years pass and arboriculture increases. It was beneath this venerable growth that Washington took command of the Continental army, July 3, 1775. As the sunlight, filtering through the great branches of the elm, fell athwart the uplifted blade held by the mounted figure of Washington and, again, upon the faces of the patriots aglow with loyalty and courage, it would seem that Nature herself gave the blessing to those hearts who wrested liberty from her captor and enthroned her forever above American soil.

A majestic elm, set out by Captain Daniel Henchman, was long famous as an old settler on Boston Common; while the one at Newtonville, Massachusetts, which had shaded the homes of three governors, was generally considered the most important landmark in the town.

More fortunate is New York City, which, it is said, still possesses several of the original circle of cypress trees which were on the old Jumel estate, now near 159th Street. These trees were a present to Mr. Jumel from Napoleon, who imported them from Egypt. Not far distant from this broken circle is a group of gum trees, relics of thirteen specimens planted in his garden by Alexander Hamilton to represent the thirteen original states. They stand near the rectory of St. Luke's, which was once the Hamilton mansion.

Romantic memories attach themselves, also, to a large pine which grew near the village of Fort Edward on the Upper Hudson. For many years the words, "Jane McCrea, 1777," could be deciphered in the bark. Jane McCrea, a beautiful girl, affianced to a young soldier fighting under Burgoyne, was visiting a young woman at Fort Edward. While walking near the village, one day, the two girls were surprised by Indians, seized, and carried off. An alarm was raised and a detachment of soldiers sent in hot pursuit. In the skirmish which ensued as the soldiers overtook the abductors, Jane was accidentally shot, and slipping from the

pony on which she had been placed, fell expiring beneath this pine tree. Before anyone could prevent, she was scalped and an Indian had escaped with the lock. He rode into Burgoyne's camp and sold the treasure. The girl's betrothed recognized her hair and immediately deserted.

The redskins were even more successful in their depredations in 1791. Then "Little Turtle" and his band destroyed the white troops near an enormous apple tree which had taken root at the junction of two rivers forming the Maumee in the state of Indiana, where this tree has been noted as an historic monument.

However, the tree of trees was the stately elm which spread its protecting arms above another band of Indians gathered to form a solemn treaty—which was never broken—with the noblest of Pennsylvanian colonists, William Penn. The sheltering witness at Shaxamaxon, however, was felled by a gale in 1810. One may view a portion of the trunk at the Penn family seat in England, or in an armchair made for Dr. Rush. Charleston also records an important council meeting beneath a tree, during the siege, and this particular magnolia has been accorded the liveliest care and affection ever since; which is true, as well, of the splendid live-oaks, once a part of the old Foucher plantation, now Audubon Park, New Orleans. John Audubon loved to study nature beneath the fringed branches of these patriarchal growths which were saplings when the first white man landed on America's shores.

Like the great ornithologist, so did the statesman Zachary Taylor love to sit under a tree and muse; and Wisconsin people at Green Bay remind their children that they should protect the old elm that once overspread the officers' quarters at Fort Howard. Today, the elm shares a portion of the switch yards of a railroad. This same state boasts an oak still existing at the western extremity of Lake Geneva, in which "Big Foot," the chief, buried his first born son shortly after the white man first settled in that locality. The coffin in which the remains were enclosed was a hollow log which was suspended in the limbs of the tree. The stump of another growth was long pointed out as the "flag staff." It grew in front of Big Foot's lodge which was the Council House of the tribe. It was upon this tree that he "displayed his standard."

But while we pay homage to single historic specimens, let us remember the groves of redwood in California which are prehistoric and which, today, are in danger of annihilation. Some of these have possessed rings indicating over 5,000 years of growth. The "Father of the Forest," when felled was 400 feet in height. The "Grizzly Giant" has a circumference of ninety-three feet. No specimens of vegetation have shown such intense vitality; no cathedral was ever so magnificently buttressed; no column so imposing as these giants of the ages, that tower above the races whose indifference or heartlessness permit their destruction.

"The Trees of the Lord" and "The Tree Butcher"

By John Davey, Kent, Ohio

THIS is a somewht cold but a clear March day, business is a little quiet; let's go a-hunting. There is no law against shooting any time of the year—with a camera.

PHOTOGRAPH NUMBER ONE

Well, here's a fine maple, let's box it up —in the camera—and send it to the Tree

PHOTOGRAPH NUMBER ONE

Number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. The readers of that magazine should know what is going on, and learn how to stop the deplorable destruction of our fruit and shade trees—as well as the forests.

What a faithful friend of man is the tree! Standing the storm and winter's sleet, and shielding us from the summer's heat. Here is a tree in perfect health, and a representative of that marvelous combination of diversity and symmetry in nature which is so restful to the tired brain and aching heart. Already the cheerful note of the robin is heard and in this beautiful tree some of them will construct lovely little homes. What a charming place from which to introduce a new family into a world of struggle!

PHOTOGRAPH NUMBER TWO

Oh, my! here is our magnificent maple again. It has gone through the summer. and, by transpiration, has thrown off into the atmosphere some five hundred barrels of water. "Don't believe it?" Well. my friend, you would better be reading up a little to see how we are changing our climate by destruction of the forests; but we will not discuss that subject just now.

What beautiful tints and gorgeous markings have the leaves of the maple! I love all trees, but there are three that seem to surpass all others: the maple for its richness of foliage, the oak for strength, and the elm for its arching habits and peerless drapery.

Who—that loves a tree—has not stood spell-bound and compared the giant elm to the human frame? From the majestic trunk extend the powerful arms. There are the "joints" and, finally, a division into the fingers on the tops of which are borne the modest flowers and those mar-

PHOTOGRAPH NUMBER TWO

velous structures we call "leaves." Oh, the beauty of a leaf! How charming its veining! How divine its mission of pre-

paring oxygen for the animal kingdom! And—Hark! C-r-a-s-h! Horror! one of those miserable "tree butchers" has got loose! see that huge branch falling! Come, let's investigate!

Hello! What are you doing there?

"Can't you see?"

I think we can. By what authority do you destroy a branch that it has taken nature over half a century to build?

"To be plain, sir, it's none of your business; but to be half civil with you, by the authority of the owner of this property."

Does he know what you are doing?

"No, he doesn't bother his head about it; he leaves it to me. I am a man of experience; I have followed this work for a quarter of a century."

PHOTOGRAPH NUMBER THREE

Did you ever study tree life?

"I should say so: I have seen trees as long ago as I can remember, and would like to see the fellow that can stump me on a name."

Do you know how a tree is constructed

"Constructed! Who cares anything about that? What our business men want is not a lot of college-bred fellows running around with high-falutin language telling how trees are 'constructed,' but a man who can swing an ax and run a saw and earn his two dollars a day."

Did you cut off the branches that we see lying all down that street and in the lawns?

"I did sir; and it took me only two days to do it. Fully twenty wagon loads of them off, and cost only four dollars."

How long have you worked on the trees in this town?

"About twenty-five years, and never had a man say I 'soldiered' on him."

So you are the recognized "Tree Man" and people rely on your judgment?

"I am the 'Tree man,' sir; and my judgment in the town is considered final, and my word is law on the subject."

PHOTOGRAPH NUMBER THREE

I cut this stub (the middle one in the photograph) from yonder maple tree. Did you trim that tree?

"Yes, sir; one year ago, and it didn't take me over an hour to do the job."

I do not doubt that you are honest in putting in your time faithfully, but do you know you are killing the trees?

"Do you—a stranger—come into the town and insult an honest man by insinuating such a charge?"

No insulting about it; but it is certainly time that you knew what you are doing. Did you trim that apple tree from which I took the specimen (at the right in the photograph)?

"I did, sir; and have the respect of the owner; the work was done some ten years ago."

Do you think it a trifle that you inflict huge wounds that result in decay clear to the center of the trunk and finally kill the tree?

"That's nothing; thousands of trees over the country are like that. When they don't do well, dig 'em out and put in others."

PHOTOGRAPH NUMBER FOUR

Did you cut the tops off these trees? (Showing photograph number four.)

"I did, sir; and wasn't long about it."

Did you ever examine the wounded tops in after years?

"No, sir; don't fool any time away in examinations."

PHOTOGRAPH NUMBER FOUR

Here is what follows your ignorant practices of lopping off the tops of trees and leaving the wounds unprotected. (Showing photograph number five.) The centers decay, catch the water which accelerates the rot, and you tree butchers and the owners are both ignorant of what is taking place.

Look here, man; you and the class that you represent have destroyed millions of trees in the States, and reduced the real estate value in some cities one-fourth. If I expressed my opinion of you according to the feeling I have toward you, in consequence of your infamous work, it would be in language hardly fit for a Sunday school paper or THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Granting that now and then there might be an honest man, like yourself—as far as putting in time is concerned—yet the greater portion of your class are not only grossly ignorant of tree life and its requirements, but unscrupulously take advantage of the anxiety of citizens for the welfare of their trees and destroy the trees that are intrusted to their care.

Those of your kind who are purposely destroying trees just "to make a living" should be in the penitentiary, and those who cannot or will not learn how to perform the work should honor what manhood they have left by following some other occupation in which they can do no harm.

Citizens of America: Not ten per cent of our trees are sound, and the main troubles are attributable to the ignorant, vicious work of the fellow appropriately called "The Tree Butcher."

After nearly fifty years care of trees, I have come to the conclusion there is but one remedy, namely: to *teach the child.*

Things are moving in the right direction. Nature study in the public schools is helpful, but we need the immediate removal of the "tree butcher." I am sending trained young men into different cities and taking boys from the high schools and by putting them under a season's drill making pretty good, practical tree surgeons. However, I use no boy who indulges in alcoholics or tobacco; not so much because of a temperance hobby as from the necessities of the case. Oftentimes these young men have to work a hundred feet high or more, and we find that the strictly temperate boy has the best nerve and the clearest brain.

PHOTOGRAPH NUMBER FIVE

This whole "tree problem" is so far-reaching that it demands the closest attention of the best minds of our country. President Roosevelt has recently said that "the preservation of our forests is one of the greatest internal problems." Whether the President comprehends that not one in ten of our trees is perfectly sound I know not; but such, alas, is the deplorable fact.

Away with the tree butcher! Educate the child!

Tree Planting on Treeless Land

By Samuel Monds Coulter

Professor of Botany, Washington University, St. Louis.

ON account of the rapid disappearance of those trees which are best adapted for lumber, telegraph and telephone poles, railroad ties, the manufacture of pulp and other marketable products, a feeling of anxiety has arisen as to what will be the final outcome of this wholesale cutting away of our forests. This has been lately followed by a movement looking towards the reforestation of areas which have been denuded by lumbering operations or by forest fires, by planting trees on such lands as are not suitable for agricultural purposes. With the intention of ascertaining the extent of this movement, the writer has collected the data for this paper, hoping that a knowledge of what is being done may create a wider interest in this important work. In compiling the article he has quoted largely from the reports of the United States Forester and the reports and personal letters of the officials of such states as have undertaken forestry operations.

This work is at present carried on in three different ways; first, by the United States government through the Bureau of Forestry; second, by those states which have organized a department of forestry; third, by private individuals and corporations, either alone or in coöperation with state or national organizations.

The annual report of the United States Forester for 1904 gives a summary of what has been done by the Bureau during the past year and what is contemplated for the immediate future. One of the most noticeable features of this work is the coöperation with private owners in the planting of trees. While the Bureau does not furnish seeds or trees for this purpose, it gives the services of specially trained men who examine such private lands and prepare plans for planting. The owner is advised as to the feasibility of setting out trees and the kind of tree best suited to the location and conditions. It is difficult to estimate the actual number of trees which have been planted in accordance with such plans. Most of the planting has been in the form of small shelter belts and groves set out by farmers.

In the five years during which this policy of coöperation has been in force, an aggregate of 334 plans has been prepared, comprising about 14,000 acres. This, however, does not constitute the whole amount of planting, since many farmers use the planting plans of their neighbors and do not report to the Bureau. As an example of this kind of work may be cited two distinct regions for which plans were prepared in 1904. The first was the plains of eastern New Mexico and western Texas. It is known that, as a result of this plan, 300,000 trees were planted on 237 acres. The second covered the flood damaged land along the Kansas River and resulted in the publication of Circular No. 27, on the "Reclamation of flood

damaged lands in the Kansas River valley by forest planting." This circular has been distributed among the farmers of this district and planting plans will be sent to those who apply to the Bureau.

Tree planting has been undertaken in reserves which have been set apart by the government for this purpose. There were 100,000 pine seedlings set out on the Dismal River Reserve, in west-central Nebraska, in the spring of 1903. These trees were set in deep incisions made with a spade in the loose sand of the sandhills. Unfortunately, a large part of the trees were injured in shipment, so that only one-fourth of them survived; these showed a vigorous growth through 1904.

Several methods of seeding direct in the sandhills have been tried, but better results have been accomplished by growing seedlings in a nursery. Over a half million seedlings were raised in this way in 1903, and, in the spring of 1904, 300,000 of these were set out on 335 acres. In June nearly ninety-five per cent of these were living and growing. In this nursery about 1,500,000 small trees are now ready for planting, April, 1905.

Planting on the San Gabriel Reserve, in California, has been in progress experimentally for three years, but, until the establishment of a nursery at an elevation about as high as the region to be planted, the experiments have met with little success. A nursery of eighty acres, with a large reservoir in connection with it, has been established in the San Gabriel Mountains, 2,500 feet above sea level. A portion of this area was planted in March, 1904, with spruce, cedar, and several species of pine. The results of this experiment will be watched with considerable interest, as they will determine the feasibility of this method of securing seedlings for planting in mountainous regions..

In the way of forest replacement, preliminary studies have been carried on in Colorado, Kansas, New Mexico, and southern New England. For example, on the Pike's Peak Reserve, Colorado, attention was principally given to the history and causes of forest fires, the young growth which has followed fire, the rate of growth of the principal trees, the conditions influencing forest replacement on burned over areas at high altitudes and the necessity of supplementing natural reproduction by planting. Here, as in other areas, the preliminary studies will be followed by practical experiment, resulting eventually in the reforesting of these denuded tracts.

Considerable work has already been done by some of the states along the line of forest replacement. The state of Pennsylvania has instituted a forest nursery at Mont Alto and will probably establish others at different places. The young seedlings derived from this nursery will be transplanted upon lands which have been purchased for forest reserves. At the present time, there are 200,000 seedlings of red oak, chestnut oak, white oak, red ash, horse chestnut, yellow pine, white pine, Douglas fir, red spruce, catalpa, locust, and chestnut, half of which will be set out this season and new seeds planted. This nursery will soon be enlarged fifty per cent and, in a short time, it will contain 400,000 seedlings. Tree planting in Pennsylvania was begun in the spring of 1902 by setting out 5,000 two-year-old white pines in the South Mountain Reservation; in the spring of 1903, 1,600 more were planted in the same region; in the spring of 1904, 1,000 more white pine and 2,000 two-year-old catalpas. Last fall one acre was planted with catalpa and black locust, and a five acre tract of low, loamy soil, in the north-central part of the state, was planted solidly with black walnut. Much work is contemplated for this year, among which is the planting of an old farm in Huntingdon county with 20,000 two-year-old white pines. In this connection, it may be well to state that the forestry officials of Pennsylvania are particularly anxious to regenerate the white pine forests, because this is one of the most

valuable timber trees and, also, one well adapted to make good growth under the conditions existing there. All the planting will be with trees raised in the state nurseries, as they have adopted the policy of purchasing no seedlings from private nurseries. The people of this state are awake to the necessity of reforesting such denuded lands as cannot be utilized for farming, and requests are constantly coming in for information regarding methods of planting. This work will be carried on diligently and in an increasing degree, so that it is expected that there will soon be a creditable showing of new trees on the forest reservations of Pennsylvania.

In New York the forestry department is doing all that can be done with a limited appropriation, and the officials are anxious to undertake on a large scale the work of reforesting the denuded lands of the state. The Superintendent of State Forests states that he believes that the formation of artificial forests is feasible and profitable in this country, as well as in Europe. There are more than 50,000 acres of waste, burned over, and denuded land in the Adirondack Park alone, and, in order to secure data as to the expense and feasibility of reforesting such tracts, 700 acres in the Adirondacks were set apart for experimental purposes. This tract originally sustained a growth of large white pines, which had been lumbered off and the land entirely denuded by repeated fires. It was an open plain, broken by long, rolling ridges, the sandy soil covered with a thin deposit of ashes left from forest fires. Over a half million trees, from two to four years old, were set out in this tract at a total expense of less than half a cent per plant, including cost of seedlings, cartage and labor. Half of these young trees were Norway spruce, the remainder were white and Scotch pine, Douglas fir, European larch, and black locust, With the exception of the Norway spruce, these trees have made favorable progress, although the planting was all in poor soil. It was evidently a mistake to transplant the spruce seedlings into such poor soil, for they have not made satisfactory growth. Hereafter the officials will confine the planting of Norway spruce to the best soil.

At various points in the state, forest nurseries have been established; in the Catskill region in Ulster county, four acres were prepared in 1902 for this purpose. A portion of the tract was laid out in beds, four feet by twenty, and planted with seeds of pine and spruce. Seeds of chestnut, walnut oak, and basswood were planted in long rows. It has been found that the soil in this region is too stony for nursery purposes and another site will soon be selected on rich bottom soil in the valley. A still larger nursery was established at Saranac Inn Station in the Adirondacks; this contains seven acres of sandy loam and will have a capacity of more than three million seedlings and transplants. At the present this nursery is in a flourishing condition. These nurseries are still insufficient to supply the seedlings needed for the state plantations, so nothing has yet been done in the way of distributing young trees to the people in general. The officials have just ordered 400,000 plants from the commercial nurseries in Halstenbek, Germany, and 110,000 from Illinois nurseries.

As an instance of what is being done by many private owners, may be cited the recent action of the Remington-Martin Company of Watertown. This firm has just placed an order with the Halstenbek nurseries for 625,000 Norway spruce seedlings. This firm and the St. Regis Pulp Company of Watertown are about to establish nurseries for the propagation of seedling spruce, which can be used in their cut over lands.

An interesting way of planting is known as the "seed spot method," which consists in breaking up the ground in small spots about two feet square, at intervals of eight feet each way. A dozen seeds are scattered on the loose earth and lightly covered with soil. When the seed-

lings are two years old, one is left where propagated, the others are used to plant in intervening spaces each way and in other locations as needed. Larger quantities of seed are required for this purpose and for planting in the nurseries. The year 1904 was a seed year for the white pine in New York, this occurring only once in four or five years. The forester in charge engaged a number of men and boys early last September, and spent two weeks in gathering these seeds. A bushel of cones yields a little over one pound of seed, aggregating about 30,000 seeds. Over 500 pounds of seed were gathered at this time, costing fifty cents a pound. This will be used this spring in the nurseries and for seed spot planting. This year the red spruce will bear cones and the seeds of this important species will be gathered in the fall.

In Michigan there are large tracts of land formerly occupied by immense forests of pine; this has been lumbered off and the remaining growth destroyed by repeated fires. These barren wastes have a deep sandy soil, which is of no value for farming land. The attention of the state has recently been directed towards the possibility of restoring these lands to their original condition. So far very little planting has been accomplished. Last year 51,000 trees were set out in these denuded pinery lands, and this year, 80,000 more will be planted. These were obtained from private nurseries, but the state has now established its own nursery and a half million young plants are growing there. This nursery will be considerably enlarged during the coming year.

Some work has been done also in the Dakotas and in Minnesota, and agents of the United States Bureau of Forestry have just completed an investigation of the areas planted there. In their report, soon to be published, they will state that great benefits have already resulted from this planting, although the trees employed are better suited to grow on river bottoms than in the open prairie. Trees on the prairie must withstand extremes of drought and exposure, and, to be most valuable, should have fairly rapid growth and be of some commercial worth. For future planting, the Bureau will recommend the substitution of certain species of pine, spruce, and larch for those heretofore in use.

Inasmuch as it requires from 20 to 100 years for a tree to attain a marketable size, it is extremely difficult to induce legislative bodies to appropriate funds for the restoration of our forests. Little has been accomplished, therefore, in the way of actual tree replenishing, but much in the way of experimental preparation, so that when public interest is aroused and the funds forthcoming, tested methods can quickly be put into operation.

Tree Protection in the United States

By Mrs. Charles F. Millspaugh

President of the Woman's Outdoor Art League, Department American Civic Association.

PERHAPS the earliest protection to trees in the colonies was in Massachusetts, for in 1637 Watertown was moved to pass a vote at town meeting "to mark the shade trees by the roadside with a 'W' and fineing any person who shall fell one of the trees thus marked eighteen shillings." Exeter, New Hampshire, was a close second, when, in 1640, regulations were passed regarding the cutting of some oak trees. In 1793 the Massachusetts Agricultural Society offered prizes to the persons who should cut the trees from the most land in three years; however, so alarming a decrease in forest area was shown by reports received at the time that the policy was speedily reversed and prizes were offered for the planting of trees and the management of woodlots.

Although the agitation for the protection of trees was begun thus early and has since continued with vigor through many channels, yet the forests of Massachusetts and New Hampshire are today reported to be in a deplorable condition as the result of unintelligent lumbering, forest fires, and neglect. At present an unceasing warfare is being waged in cities and towns for the protection of shade and fruit trees from the insect pests that have gained such a fearful foothold, by Tree Protective Associations, Tree and Forestry Committees of women's clubs, the Forestry Committee of the State Federation of Women's Clubs, Forestry Associations and a society with a formidable name, The Massachusetts Association for the Suppression of the Brown Tail and Gypsey Moths.

The laws of tree and forest protection in this country have been the direct outgrowth of influence created by individual and private organizations. Between the years 1785 and 1805 two French botanists, Andre Michaux and Andre Francois Michaux, in their study of American trees, did much to arouse public sentiment to the necessity of rational treatment of our forest resources. Important influences that followed in more or less rapid succession were the publications of a New York society on "The Best Method of Preserving and Increasing the Growth of Timber," publications of Dr. Warder, Marsh's work, "Earth as Modified by Human Action," and the writings of Emerson and Thoreau.

In 1872 the now memorable act was passed creating an Arbor Day, which resulted in the planting of millions of trees in treeless Nebraska and which has spread an influence far and wide. While there is very little dissent among experts in tree knowledge from the opinion that the usual May date set aside for Arbor Day is altogether too late for the best results in tree planting for nearly all sections of the country, yet the love and interest in trees, and the sentiment aroused, which grows out of the celebration of Arbor Day has undoubtedly been a considerable factor in the promotion of measures for tree protection. By 1873 interest in our forests crystallized in a memorial to Congress by the American Association for the Advancement of Science. As an outcome, three years later, August, 1876, an Agency of Forestry was established by the United States Department of Agriculture. This grew to a Division and finally a Bureau.

The year 1876 saw not only the National Agency of Forestry established, but important agencies for the preservation of trees were created in two widely separated areas, Massachusetts and Minnesota. In Massachusetts the Appalachian Mountain Club was organized to bring together for coöperation those interested in the mountains and forests of New England and adjacent regions, not only to preserve

their present beauty but also to render their attractiveness more accessible by the building of paths, camps, and other conveniences. They have obtained by gifts and purchase several mountain and forest reservations in Massachusetts and New Hampshire, and in public recognition of their services the Legislatures of those states have exempted such reservations from taxation. The club is now lending its earnest effort toward the passage of bills for the establishment of a National Forest Reserve in the Southern Alleghanies, to be known as the National Appalachian Park, another to secure a National White Mountain Reserve, both bills being now pending. Minnesota, in 1876, formed the first association in that state for the purpose of protecting tree interests. This society published a tree planting manual.

Six years later, 1882, a sufficient number of states had joined the movement to induce the holding of a Forestry Congress, which was the forerunner of the present American Forestry Association, the oldest and most influential of the Forestry Associations. This association has been instrumental in arousing popular interest in forestry and especially in advocating and securing the adoption of the federal forest reserve policy, the most important step yet taken by the national government. The recent congress of this association held in Washington clearly evidenced the growing interest among all classes in forestry. The participation in this congress not only of the President of the United States, prominent officials both state and national, and scientists, but also the presidents of railroads, large lumber and mining corporations, live stock and wool growers' associations, land companies, and a great paper manufacturing company is most significant of the fact that interests long supposed to be warring with the idea of forest conservation are now in line with the most advanced advocates of proper scientific forest administration; and this, as President Roosevelt said, means "the difference between mere agitation and actual execution."

Upon the organization of the American Forestry Association, state forestry associations followed in more or less rapid succession. There are now thirty-three such organizations, thirteen having been formed in the last three years, all engaged in securing measures to preserve and protect our trees.

The Pennsylvania Forestry Association is notable in many ways, the oldest in point of years having an unchanged name and policy, and perhaps the only one receiving its initiative from some women, who have continued to be active spirits in the work. In the nineteenth year of its existence it has seen many of the reforms for which it stood and earnestly supported brought to a complete fruition; it has secured the creation of a forestry commission and the establishment of a State Forestry Bureau, now developed into a Department of Forestry; it has seen forest reserves established until eleven hundred square miles of territory in Pennsylvania are now woodlands controlled by the state government; the acquirement of South Mountain as a forest reserve is fulfilling the additional purpose of providing a suitable place for a Sanatory Camp, where a number of consumptive poor are given the curative treatment of fresh air and wholesome food; there are now on the grounds ten cabins, and six cottages, with a large cottage just completed Fully two-thirds of all the patients are reported cured after a stay of five months. A Forest School is another progressive feature of the work of the Pennsylvania Forestry Association, which easily leads all other states at the present time in the wide scope of things accomplished. That the influence of that inspiring worker for forest interests, Miss Mira Loyd Dock, whose name has become a synonym for tree protection, has had a large share in determining those results, no one can doubt who has kept in touch with

ELMS AT SHEFFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS

These elms, planted by school boys, are carefully preserved. A reunion was held under them seventy-five years after planting.

the progress of the forest movement.

The Pennsylvania Federation of Women's Clubs has been another coöperating force along these lines. In Philadelphia the City Parks Association has given much attention to a proposal to preserve forty acres of magnificent forest trees in West Philadelphia known as Sherwood Forest. All the Improvement Associations of that part of the city have worked hard to prevent the destruction of the trees and have been vigorously backed by such organizations as the Pennsylvania Forestry Association, the Fairmount Park Association and many others. Also Mrs. Samuel Chew offered the Association a piece of ground, partly woodland, a portion of the estate of the late Chief Justice Benjamin Chew, for a small park. In Mrs. Chew's letter to the corresponding secretary she recommends that the natural level of the ground should be preserved, thus protecting the lives of the beautiful oak trees and other fine varieties which cover this piece of exceptionally interesting historic ground.

So far as known, the Massachusetts Forestry Association is the only state association of the kind to have a permanent office open every day and all day, thus giving it character and standing. Conferences on tree problems, open to the public, have been held, while lectures on forestry and roadside improvement have been given by members in different parts of the state. Most of these lectures were given through the interest of the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ which is doing commendable work in arousing an interest in tree protection. Among the special tasks of the last year has been the preservation of the Carlisle Pines, a work standing preëminent for its educational value. A tract of nine acres in the town of Carlisle, on which were growing over ninety white pines, believed to be the largest group of the largest trees of the species in eastern

Massachusetts, were saved from the lumberman's axe; purchased by popular subscription, and placed in the hands of the Appalachian Mountain Club as a public reservation. When we are aroused sufficiently to the fact that no trees planted by what may be termed artificial means can ever equal in vigor, size, or long life, those original forest growths which had their beginning under conditions which we can never give them, and that once removed we can never replace them with their equals, it will not be necessary for men to plead with other fellow men to help save them for the enjoyment of our own and future generations.

To name all the interests at work in this one state alone would read like a page from an encyclopedia, but preëminent among the forces is one that cannot be overlooked: the various associations of women; the forestry committees of clubs; and the State Federation of Women's Clubs. The Forestry Committee of the State Federation has urged clubs to maintain forestry committees and establish civic associations. Over thirty clubs have responded with good results. This committee is urging the labeling of trees prominent in a community for beauty or history; in this way attention is called to them and a trend of thought unconsciously aroused which must result for good. Along these lines hundreds of trees are being planted by local clubs, and individual trees are being named in honor of some prominent nature lover, that greater protection will be assured. Winthrop, Massachusetts, is at present making a great effort to preserve a grove of trees set out by George Barrell Emerson, author of "Trees and Shrubs of Massachusetts."

At Sheffield, Massachusetts, many, many years ago some school boys planted elms along the line of the one village street for

ELMS AT SHEFFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS

The tree on the left has been a rallying place for the villagers for many years.

a mile or so, a double row as the picture shows. They have been the pride of the village and the greatest care has been taken of them so that not one has been lost. One of these old elms has been the rallying place of the villagers for nearly a hundred years. The Tree Planting Committee of the Roxburghe Club has a history of perseverance and achievement that would do credit to a much larger body. First making a study of the city trees they found them in a state of decline and decay, with trunks scarred and burned. After three years of struggle by as undaunted a committee of women as ever worked for the public good, an appropriation was finally granted by the council that had hitherto pleaded debt while conceding the necessity of doing something to save the trees if the city was ever to enjoy shade, health, and beauty. The committee's desire was to protect the trees with strong wire netting six feet in height, to prevent gnawing by horses, far more damaging than overhead wires or underground pipes. The work of guarding by wire is begun, some twelve thousand trees being protected thus far, their wounds being treated, cleaned, and restored to health. This is one service the women of the club have done for their native city of Boston. But it is not all; the club made a contribution to the fund for the purchase of the Carlisle Pines; created an interest in trees that was no small influence in forming the Boston Common Association for the preservation of the trees and the Common itself; and worked in connection with the Massachusetts Forestry Association for the election of competent tree wardens at the annual elections. Of five thousand trees given to the citizens of Boston by the Department of Public Grounds in two years, four thousand were given subject only to the order of the Tree Committee of the Roxburghe Club. There is now an enemy of trees at work in Massachusetts seemingly harder to overcome than the indifference of laymen or officials, the rapacious brown tail and gypsey moths. Societies are all joining hands with those already mentioned in an effort to exterminate the pests which threaten destruction of shade and fruit trees. The Forestry Committee of the Massachusetts Federation has issued an illustrated folder describing the operations of these insect depredators and showing pictures of large trees defoliated by them in three days. Trees bereft of their foliage three years in succession usually die. The slogan addressed to all who value the beauty and prosperity of the state is, "help save the trees." The Woman's Club of Salem has aroused public spirit in city and press, and through children has gathered and burned three hundred and seventy-five thousand of the moth nests—a modern instance of burning in Salem much to her credit. Thus the women are working while legislation considers. The Forestry Committee hopes to endorse a bill before the legislature that shall definitely authorize the expenditure of $60,000 for the introduction of a parasite. Suppression of the coddling moth by a parasite is assured. Experts promise as much for the gypsey moth.

Four years ago the General Federation of Women's Clubs added to its committees a Committee on Forestry. Of the State Federations thirty-eight have appointed similar committees, the chairmen of which constitute the General Federation Committee with a chairman appointed by the Board. It is therefore safe to say that in those thirty-eight states there will be active measures taken during the coming two years to arouse an intelligent interest in trees. "Forestry Day" is already a recognized program in a constantly increasing number of women's clubs. The present efficient chairman, Mrs. Lydia P. Williams, of Minnesota, has rendered excellent service in her own state where for the last six years she has been active in the forestry work of the State Federation, securing the reservation of valuable timber lands fringing

A TREE IN ILLINOIS

TREE CAREFULLY PRESERVED IN YARD OF DR. SCHENCK, ILLINOIS

THE SENTINEL'S MAMMOTH TREE GROVE, CALAVERAS COUNTY, CALIFORNIA

some of their lovely lakes and forming the watershed of the Mississippi.

In Illinois there is no forestry association, no forestry commissioners, no tree wardens. The women of the Waukegan Branch of the Woman's Outdoor Art League department of the American Civic Association are endeavoring to get the street trees put in charge of a competent man. Near Oregon, a small town in Illinois made known to the world through Margaret Fuller and "The Eagle's Nest," is a tract of original pine forest of great beauty. The Oregon Woman's Council worked arduously two years ago to secure the passage of a bill by the Illinois legislature for its purchase as a reservation. The bill passed both houses and wanted only the signature of the governor to insure the safety of the trees. This signature was not given. This winter the bill is again before the legislature under the care of the State Federation Forestry Committee.

Coniferous trees are already being sacrificed by wholesale in the wood-pulp mills while the increasing demand for them to celebrate Christmas season is a growing menace to their very existence. Dealers have been tempted to largely overstock with them just previous to the holiday time, which resulted a year ago in thousands being ruthlessly destroyed. In Washington it was estimated that two thousand trees of various kinds remained unsold after Christmas. Some were carted away for fire wood while the rest were placed in a pile on the hay market ground and a match applied. The loss was considerable, as many of them had been shipped long distances, two carloads of sweet scented and symmetrically shaped balsams having come from Canada In Philadelphia the Christmas tree syndicate became frightened at an overstocked market, and destroyed thirty full carloads of spruce and pines a few days before Christmas, by having them loaded on cars, run to dumps some distance from the city, saturated with oil and the torch applied. The New York *Sun* exploded after this fashion: "The Christmas tree dealers who saturated 4,000 trees with oil and then burned them in order to keep prices up by a more limited supply deserve to be hanged on the trees that are left until they almost gasp for breath. Are there not 4,000 families that can't afford

to buy Christmas trees at any price?" The Wild Flower Preservation Society of America urges an active united movement against the extravagant use of evergreens at Christmas.

The Louisville Branch of the Woman's Outdoor Art League exerted every effort to help procure for the city the beautiful Central Park, whose magnificent forest trees were in danger of being cut down to make room for apartment houses. The property has now been purchased by the city and the children of rich and poor will continue to play in the shade of those grand old trees, a heritage of nature that could never be duplicated by any planting done by the hand of man. The Forestry Club of Portland, Oregon, and the Tree Planting Committee of the Improvement Association at Columbus, South Carolina, are widely separated geographically, but have purposes near at heart.

Massachusetts is said to be the only state having a law requiring the election of tree wardens at each annual town meeting. Other states have in some instances been able to secure a law permitting the appointment of tree wardens by cities of a certain class. The Society for Beautifying Buffalo was successful last year in securing the passage of a bill creating a Forestry Commission which should have charge of planting, transplanting, and removing trees and for the trimming, spraying, and caring for the same in the city of Buffalo. It is thought that this is the first bill of its kind to be passed in this country. Newark, New Jersey, has a Shade Tree Commission created by an act recently passed by the legislature. Kansas City, Missouri, has a city forester, the result of agitation of the civic improvement societies after discovering an incompetent "tree butcher" mutilating the street trees. The Mil-

MRS. LOVELL WHITE

President of the California Outdoor Art League, working to save the Big Trees.

"PROFESSOR GRAY" AND "DOCTOR TORREY"

"ABRAHAM LINCOLN," ONCE CALLED "HERMIT"
320 feet high, 18 feet in diameter.

waukee Branch Woman's Outdoor Art League is endeavoring to secure the passage of a bill pending in the legislature to secure a shade tree commission patterned after the plan of Buffalo and an appropriation by the city council of not less than five thousand dollars nor more than eight to provide for the maintenance of the work, a task requiring patience and effort.

The work of one society for tree protection has become international in its widespread interest, that of the California Outdoor Art League to preserve the Calaveras Groves of Big Trees. It is notable that about thirty women, headed by Mrs. Lovell White, whose enthusiasm has never waned and whose executive ability seems equal to every demand, has been able to arouse the whole country to a sense of the irreparable mistake it would be not to preserve these trees for all time against the greed of man's axe. They are the only survivors of the glacial period left on the earth's surface. Some of these trees were standing in calm majesty on the Pacific coast of this country when the Pyramids were being created by man's ingenuity in Egypt, and it would be no more vandalism to use the stones of the pyramids for paving blocks than to cut down these stately trees as is being done, to manufacture tooth picks and cigar boxes.

The response made to the appeal of the League was both instantaneous and cordial. Governors of states, colleges, forestry commissions, forestry associations, civic, social, and scientific societies, state federations of women's clubs, and individual clubs throughout the Union, enthusiastically lent their aid to advance the interests of the Big Tree Bill pending in Congress. The bill received the approval of the Public Lands Committee, the endorsement was expressed of senators and congressmen, and the President sent a special message to Congress advocating the passage of the bill, the first instance on record of a President of the United States sending a special message recommending a bill at the instance of an organization managed by women. It was believed the influence was so strong that the bill would be presented without delay, and there was no doubt expressed of its

prompt majority vote. The bill was never allowed to come before Congress.

The people of this country are more than ever alive to the interests of the Big Trees and look forward to a time when this bill will be presented before Congress and its enactment mark an achievement well worthy the effort of the courageous women who have given so much energy and of their best to this work. Defeated but not discouraged, they now have a bill before the California Legislature providing that "any and all moneys hereafter collected and received by the state of California from the United States in payment for claims of the state arising out of the War of the Rebellion and not heretofore appropriated, shall constitute a fund to be devoted by the state to the acquisition, preservation, and protection of forests within the state, and to the interests of scientific forestry generally within the state." It is said that the government is indebted to California for a large sum of money expended by the state in equipping troops to serve the government during war, and that other states have received millions of dollars for the same purpose.

The various organizations devoted wholly or in part to protection of trees in this country may be roughly summarized as: The American Forestry Association and thirty-three state associations, the Forestry Committee of the General Federation of Women's Clubs and thirty-eight state committees, twenty-three hundred improvement associations, and large numbers of unclassified individual societies and clubs. The object of all their endeavors must be the same as the object of the forest policy of the United States as expressed by President Roosevelt, "the making of prosperous homes. It is part of the traditional policy of home making of our country."

The Significance of Arbor Day

By Carl H. Grabo

ARBOR Day, a day devoted to the planting and the care of trees is of American origin. In 1872 the Hon. J. Sterling Morton induced the state legislature of Nebraska to adopt a resolution designating a day on which trees should be planted throughout the state and offering prizes to the society and the individual which should plant the greatest number. The idea sprang at once into popular favor, and over a million trees were planted in Nebraska the first year. Other states soon followed the lead of the "Tree Planter's State," so that now Arbor Day is observed in nearly every state and territory throughout the United States. The time of its observance is of course not at all uniform, but is selected in each case with an eye to climate and local conditions. In the North and West, April and May are the months usually selected. In the South, late autumn and early winter are more often favored.

In its origin Arbor Day was more material than sentimental. The reckless spoliation of the great forests early alarmed far-sighted and public-spirited men who saw in it a great and direct loss to national wealth, as well as an even greater menace to climate, and, as a consequence, to agriculture. In the treeless prairie states of Nebraska and Kansas the lack of forests was felt, both in the scarcity of necessary timber for building purposes, and in the irregularity of rainfall. Trees were needed to conserve and increase material wealth. States more favored by nature saw in the examples of the prairie states a threat of similar necessity should they fail to keep what they

ship given without stint. The claim is made that not a tree given to a public school has been injured. A tree planted with much ceremony and named William McKinley has stood for two years in a small yard to which a thousand boys have daily access.

A writer in the *New York Tribune* reports the practical expression of child friendship for the trees in their midst:

Visiting an East Side block between First and Second avenues, to look after the condition of fifteen trees planted there last spring, a member of the Tenement Shade Tree Committee found a small boy digging vigorously around the roots of a thriving Carolina poplar, with a broken fork. He was not making much impression on the soil, but his chubby face was beaming with a sense of importance and public service rendered. "This is the Tree what I takes care of," he explained. "It's the biggest of 'em all, but it wouldn't be 'less I did this to it every day." . . . . Of the fifteen trees planted in one block, where over 600 children made their homes, only two had died in the year, and neither of these from wilful injury or neglect. Every child in the neighborhood could give the individual history of any one of the trees, and considered each almost in the light of a personal friend. The experience in this one locality seemed indeed to well illustrate Jacob Riis's remark: "Let us have the trees, and the nearer the homes of the poor the better; as they grow good citizenship will grow with them." . . . . A little girl with a First Avenue address wrote: "You planted one in front of Jimmy Fagan's house, and he laughs at me cause I haven't any. Can't you give me one, too? I'll take more better care of it than Jimmy does."

The Chicago Tree Planting Society is probably the newest of its kind. Like the Kansas City Club which obtained a city forester backed by adequate legal regulation and then resolved itself into obscurity, the Chicago society proposes as its chief end the securing of a comprehensive, consistent, and authoritative policy through municipal regulation of all tree planting outside the fence lines on both sides of the streets.

A word of warning: The efficient service rendered by societies for tree planting does not contradict the suggestion of a better way. Except in rare instances the local improvement association or a joint committee representative of all interested organizations will furnish the most satisfactory agency for solving the tree problem of the community.

Individuals and clubs interested in tree planting are invited to correspond with THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Trees in Cemeteries

By O. C. Simonds

Landscape Gardener.

BEFORE deciding what trees to plant let us consider first what a cemetery should be. It is a place to which we carry those we have loved and so it should be beautiful, quiet, and restful. The quietness will come from boundary plantations shutting out of view outside objects. A low growth also tends to produce a feeling of restfulness that comes from freedom from intrusion. Such a low growth may be the result of planting shrubs or of allowing the lower branches of trees to remain so that they hide one portion of the cemetery from another. The main question, however, is, "How shall the cemetery be made beautiful?" I believe that all who are not engaged in the manufacture of monuments would admit that trees do more than anything else to add to the attractive appearance of a cemetery. The attractiveness is due not alone to the trees themselves, but

also to the part they play in making artistic compositions in which the effect is due to varied growths both of trees and shrubs, open lawns, and, when the cemetery is especially favored, to placid lakes or running streams, and distant views of mountains, hills, valleys, and ocean.

The above ideals will help us to answer the question, "What shall we plant?" In the first place the trees which are used should be hardy. We want them to grow for many years and take pleasure in the soil, the climate, and their surroundings. As we want an artistic composition, the sky line must be carried to varying heights. There should be trees of all sizes and our list should include those attaining greatest height, among which would be found, oaks, elms, maples, cherries, poplars, willows, lindens, hackberries, and ash trees in almost all localities, and in certain favored situations, tulip trees, sassafras, pepperidge, cucumber trees, buckeyes, birches, catalpas, butternuts, hickories, walnuts, chestnuts, beeches, Kentucky coffee trees, larches, sweet gum, locusts, mulberries, and sycamores.

Among the first named, objection has sometimes been made to the white oak on account of its holding its leaves during winter, or dropping them gradually until the last are pushed off by the new growth of spring; but as I look out of my window and see the warmth which the brown leaves, still hanging to the oak trees, give to the winter landscape in early March, I think they are fully worth the little extra care which they may require. By the way, it is not necessary that the leaves should all be raked up the day they fall. The oak leaves contain much woody fiber so that they retain their shape long after they have fallen to the ground and make a most pleasing and interesting ground covering. I like to note the pointed lobes of the leaves of the red, pin, and scarlet oaks and the rounded lobes of the bur- and white oak leaves as they lie upon the ground in late autumn and early winter, some of them retaining, even at this late date, a pleasing, purplish tinge of color. The covering which they form might be allowed to remain permanently in thick groups of shrubs and trees with advantage to the trees and to the appearance of the ground.

Probably the American elm would be voted our most graceful and beautiful tree. It is certainly worthy of the attention which is has received. It should be planted where the soil is suited to it and where there is abundant moisture, and should be given a large space in which to develop its spreading top. Our other elms and the species which have come to us from Europe are not as graceful in shape, but they have qualities which make them worthy of place in any cemetery large enough to contain all available trees.

The maples are good trees, especially the sugar maple and the Norway maple. The latter is, perhaps, the most valuable ornamental tree that has come to us from Europe. It sends its leaves and blossoms out very early in the season and retains its foliage until November. It seems to delight in sandy soil. The soft, white, or silver maple is a tree of very rapid growth, but it is often condemned on account of the ease with which its branches are broken by severe winds. It is also very subject to the attacks of the maple scale, but, nevertheless, it is a beautiful tree and sometimes supplies just the foliage required to form a satisfactory picture. The maples, as all know, are most attractive for the reds and yellows which they assume in autumn. Ash trees are graceful in shape and are admirable in every way, with the exception that they are a little tardy in showing new growth in the spring and that they drop their leaves early in the fall.

The space allotted for this article will not permit a description of each desirable kind of tree, but there is scarcely any species for which a suitable position cannot be found in a good sized, rural cemetery. Thus far I have mentioned only deciduous trees, but where they will thrive, pines, spruces, cedars, and other evergreens should be planted in large

HEAVILY WOODED CEMETERY DRIVEWAY
The trees shut off the view of the monuments.

A CEMETERY DRIVEWAY

The park, lightly wooded, reveals the monuments.

POND THICKLY BORDERED WITH TREES AND UNDERGROWTH

BEAUTIFUL EFFECTS CAN BE SECURED BY THE USE OF OPEN SPACES NEAR THE WATER

numbers. The smaller trees such as thorn apples, crab-apples, red-buds, dogwoods, horn beams, ironwoods, and plums should also be used.

In planting the cemetery try to remember beautiful things you have seen. Perhaps on some hillside you have noticed a large group of wild crab-apples in full bloom. If so, you will certainly want to have such a group in the landscape you are creating. Again, an oak or an elm may stand by itself and spread its branches far out on either side; one an example of dignity, the other of gracefulness. They should be given a chance to develop in this way when planted in the city of the dead. Then there are groups of trees, sometimes all one kind, and sometimes made up of a number of species. These offer helpful suggestions; for the one who is called upon to design the planting of a cemetery should keep his eyes open whenever he rides through the country and then store his mind with the effects that are most pleasing.

It is sometimes said that certain trees should not be planted in a cemetery because they require so much room. This is a valid objection with regard to planting large trees on small lots, but it does not apply to the cemetery as a whole. For instance, evergreens which require a wide space near the ground can be planted along the boundary, or as a background for very large lots, or on steep slopes not adapted for burials. In making a design for such grounds as we are considering, advantage should be taken of the fact that some people wish large lots and others small. Large lots can usually be grouped near each other so as to give a chance for broad lawns and groups of trees and shrubs that require room. With such an arrangement the large lots not only help each other in appearance, but they allow the introduction of many species of trees and shrubs which would be out of place if the whole cemetery were divided into small lots. To one who has but a given amount of money to expend in making his family burial place beautiful it might be well to suggest that a comparatively large lot with a tree and a few lilacs, roses, or honeysuckle bushes would give a far better effect than a very small area with a large or expensive monument. The most beautiful cemeteries are those which are most park-like. It might be well for those who are studying our subject to compare "Spring Grove" of Cincinnati with "Pere la Chaise" of Paris.

A mistake is sometimes made in cemeteries in the planting of a row of trees along each side of curved drives. Such rows are especially bad when they are made up of deciduous and evergreen trees alternating with each other. Avoid outlining individual lots with trees or shrubs. Remember that the ground should be treated as a whole so one part will not detract from the appearance of another.

It is as important to omit trees from certain areas as it is to plant them in others, and here again it is fortunate that people have different tastes so that some will desire to have lots that are all sunshine and others will delight in shady places. We need for the most beautiful pictures large areas of sky, and trees planted in rows or distributed uniformly over the ground prevent our seeing much of the sky or clouds from any one point of view. Trees please us most when they are left to grow in a natural way. The trimming should usually be confined to the removal of dead branches and the cutting away of such limbs as intefere with walking or driving. Occasionally it does no harm to allow the lower branches to sweep the ground, hang over the edge of a drive or dip into the surface of a lake.

In conclusion let us try to arrange the trees so that an artist will be glad to paint or photograph the views which their branches help to frame, and let us add to the stateliness and dignity of the trees the loveliness of shrubs, so that what is known as the final resting place shall be sought alike by birds and lovers of beautiful scenery.

New Trees Introduced by the Government

By Walter H. Evans

Of the United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

AN explanation of the government's interest in new trees, or trees for new localities, and the methods of their introduction and dissemination has been asked for the readers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. In this article the government and the Department of Agriculture as now constituted, as well as its predecessor, a small section of the Patent Office, are considered as synonymous, the work being practically all under that branch of the government. The Department of Agriculture practically owes its origin to a small appropriation that was set aside by the Commissioner of Patents for the purchase and distribution of new and valuable seeds and plants, and for the collection of agricultural statistics. In his report for 1854 Charles Mason, Commissioner of Patents, laid the foundation for plant introduction, saying:

A considerable share of the appropriation by Congress for agricultural purposes has been devoted to the procurement and distribution of seeds, plants, roots, and cuttings. . . . Measures have been taken to procure from every quarter of the globe such seeds, plants, roots, and cuttings as would admit of useful and successful cultivation in this country. . . . The advantage resulting from the introduction of a new commodity of average utility is of more value to the country than the acquisition of a new province.

During the early days of plant introduction the principal channels of information and the introduction of desirable plants were through our diplomatic and consular agents, missionaries, naval expeditions, and by occasional special agents, one of the first of whom was sent to Europe in 1854. Naval expeditions were the means of obtaining many new plants, that of Commodore Perry to Japan being notable in this respect. More recently the Department of Agriculture has maintained a corps of agricultural explorers who have made systematic surveys of nearly every portion of the world and obtained specimens of all plants that seemed desirable or promising for this country. Naturally in the introduction work seeds are more easily and safely transported, and they have been most extensively secured; but the efforts have not stopped short of the shipment of living plants, cuttings, roots, etc., until there is hardly a plant of economic importance that has not at some time been introduced into the country. The rather limited tropical and subtropical area of the United States proper has deterred many attempts at the importation of purely tropical varieties, but the acquisition of Porto Rico, Hawaii, and the Philippine Islands has given us tropical lands and the department, in coöperation with the experiment stations in Porto Rico and Hawaii, is already searching the tropical world for valuable products. The extent to which the department is interested in the introduction of trees is shown from the last published inventory of introductions which covers the years 1900-1903. In this it is shown that of nearly 5,000 different lots of seeds and plants over one-third were of trees of various kinds.

The methods of distribution have varied since the beginning of the introductions. At first where small quantities were imported they were placed in the hands of responsible individuals in regions believed to be suitable to the plants. Later this method was superseded by a policy of either holding the plants at the department or sending them to some of the agricultural experiment stations or to a number of selected places where the plants are propagated under favorable conditions and the progeny distributed. This system has marked advantages in that it secures the proper treatment during the preliminary stages of the trial of the novelties, and it is a protection against the introductio-

of injurous insects and fungus diseases. This line of work is now under the direction of the Bureau of Plant Industry of the Department of Agriculture, and acclimation or testing stations are maintained at Washington, D. C., Miami, Florida, and near Chico, California. Most of the material under observation at these places may be grouped under the headings of field products, vegetables, and orchard fruits.

The Bureau of Forestry of the department is engaged in the introduction of forest and other trees but it is not confined to foreign species only. Under the division of forest extension, trials are being made of different foreign and native trees for planting in different parts of the country. One of the most extensive projects of this kind is being made in the so-called Sandhill Region of Nebraska. Here in a region apparently worthless, experiments are being carried on to afforest the country. The preliminary experiments were so successful that a forest reserve of over 120,000 acres has been proclaimed in western Nebraska and extensive plantings are being made of Scotch, rock, and jack pines. This is the largest undertaking in this line but investigations are being carried on all over the land and under certain conditions the Bureau is prepared to give assistance and advice regarding the planting of forest trees, whether it be the planting of a woodlot or of a forest. In 1874 the department distributed a large quantity of seeds of eucalyptus and while this was not the first time this tree had been brought to this country it is quite possible that the extensive growing of these Australian trees in California and the adjacent southwestern portion of our country may be traced to this stimulus. The rapid growth and ability to withstand drought commend these trees to portions of the southwest that would probably otherwise be treeless.

A number of importations made by the government have attracted wide attention. Conspicuous among them and probably the one which occupies the first rank in the introductions was the navel orange. This curiosity was noticed in Bahia, Brazil, by a lady traveler and reported to the Department of Agriculture. In 1870 a number of the trees were secured and propagated for a time, after which the progeny were distributed in Florida and California. One of the original trees is still growing in the orange house of the department. When distributed the trees were sent out under the name Bahia but for some reason the name Washington Navel became established and is the one by which it is now known. Many local names have been given it, such as Riverside Navel, etc., but it is quite possible that all can be traced to the stock sent out from Washington. This variety seems best adapted to conditions in California and it has become one of the most valuable fruits of that state. Other varieties of oranges, such as the mandarin and the tangarine, were imported from China and Japan through the department. In a similar manner the cultivation of the true citron has been made a commercial success in California, the original scions having been secured by one of the agricultural explorers in southern Europe about 1895.

A second class of fruits with which the government had much to do in the importation is the so-called Russian apples. The pioneers of Iowa, Minnesota, and Wisconsin were unable to grow the varieties of apples common in the more southern and eastern states and an attempt was made to get varieties from Russia where the conditions are somewhat similar. The first important importation was made in 1870 when over two hundred varieties were secured through the Imperial Botanic Gardens at St. Petersburg. They were grown for the time in the grounds of the department and distributed as scions throughout the northwest. Later other importations were made by private individuals. Many of the varieties proved of little value but a few such

as Alexander, Tetofsky, Duchess of Oldenburg, Red Astrachan, and Yellow Transparent, proved adapted to their surroundings and others have furnished seedlings of great promise. This series of introductions has extended apple growing far to the north and west.

The introduction and growing of named varieties of date palms in Arizona must be attributed to the Department of Agriculture acting in coöperation with the agricultural experiment station of that territory. The preliminary introduction of date palm suckers took place about 1889, and in 1899 and 1900 large importations of the best varieties of Algeria were secured by one of the agricultural explorers. These are growing in Arizona, and some have fruited, demonstrating the possibility of this new industry.

The growing of more than 100,000 pounds of Smyrna figs annually at Fresno, California, can be attributed very largely to the coöperation of the Department of Agriculture in introducing the Capri figs and the fertilizing insect needed for the proper production of this fruit.

When Commodore Perry, and some of the later expeditions to Japan, returned, they brought with them many grains, fruits, and plants. Among them was the "kaki" or Japanese persimmon. These were grown and distributed and for at least twenty years the department endeavored to introduce and popularize this attractive fruit before it was finally taken up by nurserymen. Now many leading importers offer them in their catalogues.

As early as 1854 the department undertook the introduction of the cork oak, a large number of acorns having been obtained from Europe and distributed throughout the southern states. This same tree has been tested in California and it gives promise of proving a success in some parts. Other European oaks have been introduced and they have proved valuable for certain purposes and regions. Recently a number of oaks from France were imported in an attempt to develop truffle culture in this country.

For years the department attempted to stimulate the growing of camphor trees and large numbers have been sent to Florida and to California where the possibility of their growth has been demonstrated. The feasibility of the manufacture of the gum in competition with the foreign supplies has not been established, but as a shade and ornamental tree it surpasses anything now growing in the regions to which it is adapted.

In a similar way the attempts to introduce olives, figs, prunes, almonds, and other fruit and nut trees might be described but it would only be a repetition of what has already been said.

In addition to the importation of foreign varieties the department is giving attention to the breeding of new sorts to fill certain requirements. After the destructive freeze of 1895 in Florida, agents of the department began trying to produce a hardier variety of orange that would withstand the frost. By hybridizing the hardy Japanese deciduous orange, which has a bitter worthless fruit, and the common orange, a type has been obtained that has the hardiness of the one and also shows improved fruit characteristics. It is hoped by continuing this process and through careful selection to finally obtain a variety of orange with an edible fruit which will also be able to resist a freezing temperature for a considerable time. An improved pomelo, or grape fruit, called the tangelo has already been reported as having been produced by the department's plant breeders. Other instances might be given but they would only serve to extend the list which is already long.

In conclusion it may be said that the government, through the Department of Agriculture, is doing a great work in securing all kinds of new trees and demonstrating the possibilities of their cultivation. It cannot furnish everyone with trees for individual planting but it does try to show what to plant and where it may be grown.

Fighting Forest Fires

By H. M. Suter

Editor of *Forestry and Irrigation.*

PARADOXICALLY speaking, the only way to fight a forest fire is to catch it before it becomes a forest fire. An ounce of prevention may be worth a pound of cure in some things but in forest fires it is practically all there is to it. Therefore, a treatment of the subject to be of value should suggest methods for obviating rather than checking fires.

Many states are passing stringent fire laws which provide for fighting timber blazes and for the pay of those engaged in fighting, but these laws consist principally of a number of "Don'ts" which concern such apparently trivial affairs as campfires, cigar-butts, burnt matches, brush piles and other things. Yet actual fire-fighting is effective at times, and there are recognized methods of combatting the flames after they are started, though, as indicated above, there is no comparison on the score of effectiveness between preventing and actual fighting.

To more fully understand this last point it is only necessary to review a few of the notable fires which have devastated the country in our recent history, and to bear in mind that, even without blazes that go down in history as "great," the annual loss to the United States from this source, in timber, buildings, and other property is at least $50,000,000.

This figure, enormous as it seems, accounts only for the direct losses that may be reduced to terms of money values. It does not include the indirect and more costly ones as: the loss in young trees or the forests of the future; the destruction of the humus forest floor, formed through centuries and thereafter unfit for forest growth or any other purpose; the floods that come from the quick run-off of heavy rain from the bare slopes; the washing away of valuable properties and soils in the valleys; the loss of a constant water supply for cities, for power, or for irrigation. Forest soil, spongy with root masses, holds moisture in suspension, giving it off constantly and gradually.

Then there are other losses that may be more or less definitely calculated between the direct and the far-reaching. These concern reproduction on burned areas, where the new growth is generally a scrub one of inferior species. There are also personal losses of occupation to lumbermen, guides, and to the tourist and hotel business.

Among the first of our historic forest fires was that of Miramichi, New Brunswick, in 1825. This started early one October afternoon and by midnight had entirely devastated a strip of country eighty miles long and twenty-five miles wide—a space as large as the State of Delaware, in which every living thing was killed, including the fish in the streams. The loss of life in the Peshtigo, Wisconsin, fire of 1871 was the worst this country has experienced. In burned area it was a little larger than the Miramichi but at least 1,200 persons perished, and in connection with simultaneous and contiguous fires in Michigan the total was 2,000. Ten years later great forest fires swept Michigan, with an aggregate burned area of almost 2,000 square miles, destroying more than $2,000,000 worth of property exclusive of the timber itself, rendering 5,000 persons homeless and destitute and killing no less than 400. The great Hinckley fire, which raged in Minnesota in 1894 was not so large in area burned but it resulted in the loss of 500 lives and $25,000,000 in property. In 1902 eighteen lives and $12,000,000 were lost in fires in Oregon and Washington, and the next year the East had a severe visitation, from Maine to Virginia, which had its worst examples in the Adirondack regions of New York, where there was a

AN ADIRONDACK FIRE

loss of no less than $4,000,000 over a burned area aggregating 1,000 square miles.

All of these were fires against which no amount of fighting could succeed, and the efforts of man prevailed only in isolated areas and were as naught in the whole tale of destruction. In all the foregoing cases the fires stopped on reaching insurmountable natural barriers, such as large bodies of water, unforested areas, or were quenched by heavy and timely rains.

The fury of a forest fire is indescribable, especially in soft-wood or coniferous forests. Here the flames sweep through, making a roaring wall of blaze that reaches from the ground, carpeted with inflammable material, to the topmost branches where resinous sap snaps and crackles fiercely, throwing blazing particles to ignite other trees at a considerable distance. In addition a high wind blows, in many cases generated by the fire itself, the heated air rising and causing an inrush of colder air from adjacent areas that acts like the draft of a furnace. Against this combination of ground and crown fire nothing prevails. Animals flee before it or are roasted to death. During the fires in Washington and Oregon in 1902 lakes were found packed solid with putrefying and partly roasted bodies of bear, deer, panther, and other animals, fearless of each other in the frenzy that brought them together to perish through drowning, heat, or suffocation. In these same fires a picnic party of nine persons, with team and wagon, was cut of by flames near Mt. St. Helen, and all that was found later to prove the tragedy were the irons of the wagon, the carcasses of two horses, and vestiges of the remains of human beings, the buttons

of the clothing the only evidence left to show how they fell. The horses had been cut loose in a vain mercy that sought to give them a chance to shift for themselves. Near the tires of the wagon were the remains of the women of the party, and the position of the men

FOREST FIRE NEAR PASADENA, CALIFORNIA, TWO HOURS AFTER IT STARTED

at various points from the central group of the tragedy showed that they had tried to make some sort of a fight. The task was as hopeless as making a living space in the midst of a blast furnace.

But fires can sometimes be fought. There was expended by the state and private individuals during the 1903 Adirondack fires the sum of $175,000 for fire fighting, and it was not wasted since property far in excess of that amount was saved from imminent danger. Leaving out the question of organizing fighting forces, which must be a matter of local arrangement and influenced by circumstances, there are a few general truths to be kept in mind. Where fires are extensive it is wise to remember that the most effective fighting can be done when the flames are least violent. At sunrise and sunset the wind generally dies down, and aggressive efforts should be made at these periods. If the blaze has any of the elements of incipiency about it the only course is to keep at it until every spark is dead. Surface fires such as run through the brush and debris of hardwood forests may be checked by raking away the litter on the forest floor for a space of several feet, making use of those natural defenses that are at hand, such as roads, paths, or streams. When water is obtainable the bare tract should be thoroughly wet down. Watchers should be at hand to see that sparks do not carry the flames to the defended side. Shovelfuls of moist earth or sand are of value. Some fires may be threshed out with heavy green branches, and there is nothing better than a wet gunny-sack. Where feasible a few furrows with a plow should be turned in the path of a fire, and in some localities a deep trench may be necessary to get through the tinder-like duff down to the mineral soil. When other methods fail, back firing may be resorted to, but this is dangerous unless the operation is carefully handled. This method is of use when there are plenty of men to watch, and when there are crown fires, or fires of such heat that man may not approach them. A trench or path is prepared as a line of defense, the fire applied by the fighters along the side of the approaching fire but not on the near or defended side of the line. The set fire travels toward the forest fire, destroying what the latter would feed on, and making a broad area over which but few sparks or burning brands could fly. In large fires this is the only effective method, but is liable to get the best of its starters and simply add to the danger.

There are good reasons why the world does not hear as much of the heroes of forest fires as it does of those of city conflagrations. In many cases neither the

hero nor anyone else is left to tell the tale. Also the deeds are done out of the sight of many men. Men fight side by side in the midst of danger for days at a time and suffer discomfort, exhaustion and pain. All alike volunteer for the work and when it is over return to their usual vocation on an equality of heroism—if they think of the matter at all—or on an even basis of having done a duty. Perhaps the best account of a forest fire, with its deeds of heroism or despair, occurs in "The Prize to the Hardy," by Alice Winter, a novel only recently published.

In the Adirondack fires of 1903, a small area known as South Meadow, was entirely surrounded by 16,000 acres of fiercely blazing woodland. It was a natural glade, a third of a mile long and less broad, where the grass was lush and green, and the forest did not encroach. A little stream ran through it and in its midst stood a small house in which a man, his wife, and three small children had their home. At the edge of the woods was a small shingle mill which employed three or four men, and supported their families in nearby cottages. When the flames were at their worst the men sent

FOREST FIRE ON TENSLEEP CREEK, WYOMING

their wives and children, wrapped in blankets to lie in the stream. The men tried to save the property. One was despatched on horseback to summon aid. He got a half-mile away, could proceed no farther, and got back almost by a miracle, the flames nearly out-racing him to the clearing. They leaped the meadow with a roar and attacked the woods on the other side. The women and children had to lie in the water from early afternoon until

A BURNED FOREST IN LEWIS COUNTY, WASHINGTON

Note the destruction in the foreground.

late in the morning of the next day. The mill and building were on fire six times but were eventually saved, and the little community came out unscathed to the great wonder of the countryside.

At Loon Lake the men fought the fires for forty-three days without respite, though they tried to confine their efforts to the lull times. But it was a fight of self-defense, and if rains had not come all would have been lost. As it was many fainted from exhaustion, literally on the firing line.

The Hinckley fire furnished more heroism than any other, principally because there were more persons involved. J. M. Root was engineer of an accommodation train that got almost to Hinckley. There he was unable to proceed farther because the track was burned out. He held his train until the track was burning behind him, and did all he could to help those who tried to get aboard in the only hope of salvation. The coaches were afire when the train was forced to back out, and some persons were burned to death in the

FIGHTING A FOREST FIRE

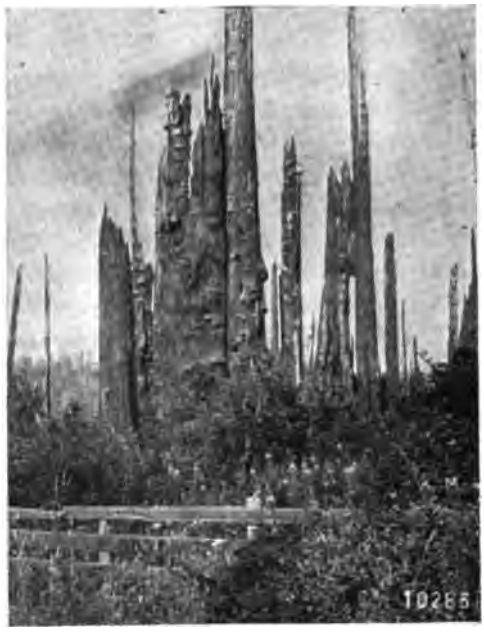
train itself. Others who were safely on board threw themselves into the roaring furnace of the woods on either side, and perished before the eyes of fellow passengers who implored the train officials to go. The conductor, named Sullivan, held the signal till the last possible second, though in his car he saw a frenzied man kiss his wife goodbye and then hurl himself to death through the jagged opening of a window where the heat had broken the glass. But he also saw forms running from the smoke and flame, many of them to fall dead at the side of the track, while others were able, helped by the train hands, to get aboard. One young girl, nude from having had the clothes burned from her body, was caught by the engineer as she fell near his cab, and was passed back to the baggage car where she was cared for. When the train started it was amid the shrieks and groans of those behind. Its destination was a lake a few miles distant, whither it backed through a veritable hell, over fire-twisted rails and burning and tottering trestles. The engineer had the clothes and hair burned from his body, and his flesh seared in spite of the efforts of the fireman to keep him drenched with water. Through one stretch the latter had to immerse himself in the water tank of the tender in order to save his own life for further efforts. The lake itself when reached was soon filled with the occupants of the train, who plastered each other with wet mud to keep off the intolerable heat and flames that surged over them. Root, the engineer, after he saw his freight of lives was safe, fell fainting at his post, horribly burned, and cut by broken glass that had burst with the heat. He was carried into the lake and later recovered. A few days later the railway officials gave out that Sullivan, in charge of the train, had become insane from the strain he

had gone through and from the memory of the scenes of horrible death he had witnessed. Thomas Dunne, a telegraph operator, died at his instrument trying to get news to and succor from the outside world. Another operator named Bullis saved 450 women and children, for when the fire first threatened, an engine in the round house was coupled to all the freight cars available and despatched to Duluth with the women and children who could be prevailed upon to go. Bullis had been driven from his office when his train left, but he had the bravery and presence of mind to make his way back into the burning building and telegraph a clear track ahead for the special from Hinckley thus averting the disaster of a collision. The train was about to stop at a burning trestle near town when a flagman named Jessmer gave the signal to speed ahead, and the train got across the swaying structure before it fell. His was a case of quick thinking at a time when minutes meant eternities, and by his action he lost the chance to go out on the train which he speeded past himself. Engineer Betz, Fireman Barry, and Conductor Campbell, were no less brave than Root, and they succeeded in carrying to safety women and children hysterical at the thought of the men-folk left behind, a sacrifice for the safety of their loved ones.

A small boy was found after four days at the bottom of a well. His father had lowered him and gone after the rest of the family. A heap of charred bodies not five feet from the shaft showed why the boy had waited in vain while the "darkness and hotness" went over him. A fourteen-year-old boy from West Duluth dragged two smaller children of the family whom he was visiting, along the railroad track to safety, while grown men with only themselves to care for dropped at his side. A lover saved his sick betrothed by carrying her a half-mile after his feet had been burned to stumps. A mother had her clothes burned from her body and all the hair from her head, while with both arms she held her nursing child to her breast in order that it might not be suffocated by the smoke. And these instances of heroism were but a few of the many.

As the capacity for great deeds is said to be measured by the ability to look after small ones, so it is incumbent on everyone to learn or teach the lesson of prevention of forest fires. The terrible Hinckley fire would not have occurred had a few citizens put out the incipient blazes which smouldered for days near the town before the wind fanned them to uncontrollable fury.

A majority of fires are set by railway locomotives. Self-interest and legislation alike should dictate that all locomotives be fitted with spark-arresters. No fires occur that are not due to human agencies. There is no authentic instance of a fire started by lightning. Instances are known of the sun's rays so focussed through a bit of curved glass as to start a blaze. This is not so improbable as it sounds; two of the great Adirondack fires are said



REMAINS OF REDWOOD TREES AFTER FOREST FIRE

to have started this way, and it is a known fact that old settlers on the prairies decried the careless leaving of pieces of broken bottles. Two boys once set a fire to find a cow-bell that cost twenty cents. They did not find the bell but burned up the cow, its barn, the home of its owner, and other property amounting to $20,000. Fire fighters hired to extinguish blazes, have, in their cupidity, set fires for the sake of putting them out, because the fire-fighting wages were greater than they could earn at usual toil.

In brief, it lies largely with the individual as to whether the forests of the United States are to suffer continued devastation. Strollers in the woods should always be careful; they should put out small fires and report big ones; teachers and parents should give children an idea of the value of the woods, and endeavor to overcome the wantonness of boys who set fires to see them burn, though this wantonness has been shown by children of a larger growth.

When all take a vital interest in this matter there will be some reduction of disaster, and the lumber industry, fourth in the United States, will not suffer from fires an annual loss greater than one-twelfth of the total annual value of all its products.

An Experiment in Road Beautifying

By S. B. McManus

MARSH Brook Farm is the actual name of our place, and not a fanciful one, as its prettiness might suggest; and, for a wonder, the name is appropriate. Marsh Brook has its rise a few miles above, in one of the many large, tall-grassed, wet meadows peculiar to southern Michigan. It is a laughing gossipy little stream, four or five feet wide, when it reaches us, even in time of drought. It runs through the whole length of the farm, at first making its way into a timothy and blue joint meadow on the east, then going fairly straight through the orchard, curving and jolting itself through a truck patch, under the fence into the back barnyard, out again, making a watering place in a field that would otherwise have been waterless, into a little garden where we have planted some choice fruit trees, made an asparagus bed, and sent a climbing rose and grapevine up the west end of the barn, then into a big, wasteful dooryard, then, diving under another fence, beneath an ugly wooden bridge—once ugly, I mean—into a pasture, a bit of wood, another pasture—the river, then lost. There are so many pretty possibilities in a little stream of water that I am particular in describing this.

Our experiment—our chiefest experiment, for we are a venturesome family—almost audacious sometimes, I might say, and abounding in unexpected departures—was to beautify the road as far as it ran through our land. It zigzagged through the farm, cutting it nearly evenly in two.

The idea of making our stretch of road pretty and attractive was first suggested, I think, by reading Mrs. Ewing's "Mary's Garden," and the placing of a red-painted bench outside of the yard fence in the shade of a couple of walnut trees, near the well, for foot travelers to sit upon and rest. It looked neighborly and thoughtful, and gave a bit of cheerful color from the front door of the house. Then it was easy to go a step farther and add some more prettiness to the intended hospitality or courtesy. There were two hollow bass-

wood logs which my mother had used for hens' nests. The bark was still on them. We ejected the poultry, and sunk the logs in the ground near the bench, leaving about a foot and a half out, filled them with rich dirt, planted a scarlet geranium in the center of each and wild Kenilworth ivy around the edges. We carried to the water's edge abandoned stew kettles with bales, cans, old baskets, almost anything that would hold dirt—painted green, red, yellow—carefully filled them, without in the least disturbing the roots of the ivy, and immediately we had a number of pretty baskets, three or four of which we hung from branches of the walnuts near the roadside bench. Our returns for the little work expended came quickly. In fact, they were there almost as soon as we were. The spot was actually pretty from the start.

I want to say right here what should have been said at the outset, that we had not a dollar to spend in our road decoration—willingness, work, and ingenuity represented our only capital. "Our," by the way, means my wife Janet, my daughter George, and my mother, as an advisory and encouraging committee.

Our next step was thirty-two feet in length, that is, we crossed the road. This move was debated and required some little courage. Our neighbors' eyes would be upon us. They would scent conviction. It looked like something premeditated and intended, and would probably lead to criticism, and, more than likely, ridicule. Nevertheless, we crossed the road and began operations. There was a pile of hardheads near by, left from the underpinning of the house. A few jagged conglomerates or pudding stones were among them, interesting in themselves, showing as they did a variety of colored pebbles with their matrix of gray iron. Of these we made as artistic a heap as we could, filling in with soil, leaving places large and small unoccupied by the stone. Around and on the top of this artistic creation we planted the Kansas or prickly pear.

With this masterly venture, the intention was born to make the whole roadway beautiful as far as we were able to do so. After the first rain, which settled the soil about the scanty roots of the plants, they began a quiet and splendid growth, and by midsummer (we began our work in May) it had put out 120 blossoms—queenly yellow ones—each succeeded by the fruit, which was nearly as pretty.

This effort was the beginning of our deep-rooted convictions regarding the beautifying of our roadway. Our first deliberate move was toward the bridge. This structure was obtrusively new there and almost criminally ugly and unsightly, so ugly, indeed, that I fancied the water seemed to scowl as it scurried or sulked under it—as the case might be in flood or drought—coming from beneath it with an unmistakable feeling of relief and hurrying in reckless disregard of manners, as if afraid of being called upon to repeat the experience. The abutments were of roughly hewn timbers of varying lengths, projecting here and receding there, and, whether doing one or the other, always untidy and unsightly. The planks of the floor were as irregular as the foundation structure, and the low, rough, railings at the side were masterpieces of bad carpentry. It became our determination to make the best of it, to make it beautiful, at least respectable, if possible.

The rank growth of needles, foxtails, and docks was first made way with. A clump of wild rose bushes growing at one side trimmed up and the dead stalks removed. A prematurely old young elm sapling bent over and untidy with straw and hay caught from loaded wagons, was cleaned, straightened up, and shorn of some mischievous branches, and tied to the bridge in an upright position. The brook itself was cleared of the "flood trash," and, with this removed, it washed for itself a deeper and prettier channel. Unsightly weeds were all dug out or mowed off. Then the dirt was shoveled from the flooring planks, the patent-medi-

cine criminalities and atrocities knocked loose from the railing and sent adrift down the tickled stream, never again to offend any one by their unsightly presence. Then came the crowning act of our endeavor, in the whitewashing of the bridge, after which performance, in contrast with its former appearance, it looked almost riotously, immorally handsome. If the whitewashing was the crowning act in this comedy, or rather tragedy of the bridge, it was succeeded by something akin to inspiration. At two corners of the bridge were bunches of wild clematis, the slender, graceful vines loaded with lace-like blossoms. When the whitewash was thoroughly dry we lifted them as gently as possible and festooned them over the railings of the bridge, tacking them securely with leather.

Our unsightly bridge straightway became famous—our ugly duckling a swan. It was the prettiest, most attractive thing for almost miles around. Very reluctant and reticent people openly admired it, and many who loved beautiful things and were glad to acknowledge it, thanked us many times for what we had done.

But this was not all. A woven picket fence which stretched over the brook and was just above the bridge, was made exquisitely pretty with a wild grapevine trained across it from one side, meeting midway a clematis vine from the other side, and, joining forces, made a cascade of dripping luxuriant green. Oh, the restful, refreshing beauty of that one panel of fence! It was and is a picture—a poem—anything that makes one glad and feel like thinking good things.

A once very pretty bank three or four rods in length had been made not only unsightly, but almost hideous, by a thrifty roadmaster taking out gravel for building and repairs. The damage had never been repaired, only scant vegetation would grow upon it, and nothing thrive except sand burrs and horse sorrel. It was conspicuously ugly. We mixed a few loads of well-rotted manure with the gravel, leveled it down with a garden rake, planted three dozen cedars from the woods across the river, carefully concealing any attempt to put them out regularly —groups here, and ones, twos, and threes there, any way, to convey the idea of naturalness. Then we added three or four North Carolina poplars—the only expense we have so far put upon the road —sunk tufts of Iceland moss in the ground, and sowed the whole with grass seed, morning-glories, and wild cucumber vines. This has been our most laborious and trying experiment, and so far least satisfactory as to results. Nearly all of the trees lived, and in a few years more will make a handsome showing.

A notable and important step in our decorative and beautifying scheme was the converting of the unsightly angles of the road into bends more or less graceful. The acute angles were made into curves, some too abrupt, albeit to completely conform to the best lines of beauty. This was not altogether an easy matter when dealing with the stake-and-rider fence, on which we made our experiment, as it did not lend itself altogether willingly to the undertaking. But in the fulness of time, when necessity demanded a constructing material, and pickets woven in place with wire were substituted, we got some beautiful results in a number of really artistic bends and crooks, which our neighbors never found fault with, and but mildly ridiculed.

Landscape Value of Some of Our Common Trees

By John Craig

Department of Horticulture, Cornell University.

IT is trite and conventional to call attention to the extraordinary variety of form, of color, and of texture found in the common trees of the wayside and wood lot. Yet how many people fail to note the fine, or even the gross differences in color and other values of these decorative agents of the landscape! It is Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer who most pointedly draws attention to these features in her charming work entitled "Art Out of Doors," and she it is who classifies the qualities of trees and places them under the three heads noted above—form, color, texture. The remarks contained in this brief article are intended to refer only to our common trees and do not include the scores of foreign types, nor yet the varieties and sorts being constantly introduced by nurserymen.

Oliver Wendell Holmes well says that "it will not do to be exclusive in our tastes about trees. There is hardly one of them which has not peculiar beauties in some fitting place for it." And I always feel that however one may qualify comparative statements, injustice is done some members of the landscape inhabitants in a brief glance at their relative beauties and values.

In considering values, we may take up the subject from the three standpoints noted above. First, *form*. Here we have infinite variety and striking divergences. Note the sharp contrasts between the billowy outlines of the American elm and the shell-bark hickory. The differences are more striking in the winter season than when clothed with foliage. In the first, curved lines predominate; in the other, abrupt angles are most apparent. The one, willowy, bending; the other stiff, unyielding. The one, graceful; the other picturesque; and both needed to give variety to the landscape.

Contrast again the profile of a Lombardy poplar with that of a Norway maple. The former penetrates, we may say pierces, the sky line. The latter furnishes massiveness, solidity, to the horizon when viewed in the distance. The one a slender exclamation point, as Bailey puts it; the other, typical of exuberant, healthy, and vegetative activity.

The form of the tree is undoubtedly its most prominent characteristic. Perhaps the form, more than any other quality, suggests its appropriate place in the landscape. The spire-like growth of the fastigiate poplars and the pyramidal growth of the larch assign them to backgrounds—to positions on the horizon where they may break up undue monotony and sameness.

There are certain trees which Nature has made more or less formal in outline, and these trees are particularly suitable for situations where formality reigns of necessity. Of these we may mention the ginkgo, a magnificent avenue tree, the larch and the Norway spruce, all of which are sufficiently formal in outline to admit of close association with the architectural school or type of landscape gardening. On the other hand, the flowing lines of the elm, maple, willow, and locust design them more for association with the natural school.

Color: While we talk much about color, write voluminously about the glorious autumn effects and the changing tints of the trees as they put on their summer garments, yet color schemes are rarely worked out in parks and lawns. In other words, while the variety of coloring of trees is recognized by all, but rarely is it taken into account in planting. And yet, how few discordant effects are to be noted either in artificial or in natural groupings! I suppose the lack of painful combinations

is to be ascribed to the predominance of soft monotones in the color of trees. There is usually enough of the intermediate tones in a tree itself, to assist in the blending of its own bright colors with that of its neighbor. For vivid autumn effects, maples and oaks stand preëminent. Yet among maples and among oaks, there are great contrasts. The gold of the Norway differs widely from the crimson and red of the sugar maple, and so it is with the oaks. There is a long stretch between the dull bronzes of the chestnut and the burr-oak and the flaming brilliancy of the scarlet.

I sometimes think that soft tones among trees are not sufficiently appreciated and that this thought may receive corroboration and support, one need but indulge in a drive through the woods in the autumn where the soft yellows of the poplars, the birches, and the ashes so effectually heighten the mellow haze of autumn. In spring, again, the beech is peculiarly beautiful during its budding season. Nor should we forget the warming influence of the golden willow upon the landscape in winter and early spring.

Texture: There is just as much variety in the texture of the trees as is to be found in form and color. Under texture, we refer to the coarseness or density as contrasted with the quality of lightness, of elegance, and lace-like airiness. There are certain trees which impart a feeling of somberness; and yet, to me, the weeping willow is not one of these, although it is often spoken of as being suggestive of gloom. On the contrary, it suggests playful grace. Its place is not more appropriately by stagnant pools than by laughing waters.

To get a notion of the meaning of texture, you may contrast on a sunny day, if you like, the shadows beneath a Norway maple and a honey locust; a catalpa with a Kentucky coffee tree; a tulip with a weeping birch, the larch with the Norway spruce. The density of the shadow suggests the quality of the texture, and the texture is to be carefully considered in connection with the place and purpose of the tree in the park or lawn.

It is impracticable to arbitrarily classify trees upon the basis of their special uses, because much depends upon the skill of the artist. One may secure a charming effect by the use of certain material, while another may fail deplorably. We may say, however, that trees having good healthy-growing habits and tending toward the rigid or formal in outline, are best for street and city planting. As examples of these may be cited the sycamore, the ginkgo, the pin oak. Others with freer outlines, and therefore better adapted for shade, should be selected for parks and spacious grounds. Among these are elms (and there is nothing finer than our American elm), the maples (the native is superior to the Norway), the honey locust, American linden, and the like.

FORESTRY (LOG) BUILDING AT THE LEWIS AND CLARK EXPOSITION

Forestry at the Portland Exposition

By W. E. Brindley

IN erecting the Forestry Building at the Lewis and Clark Exposition, which is to open at Portland, Oregon, June 1, the managers of the Western World's Fair have scored a double triumph; they have constructed a building which is absolutely unique in the history of exposition building, and which is in itself an excellent exhibit of one of the greatest resources of the country which the fair is designed to exploit.

The building is a log palace, the second largest structure of logs ever built. It has already attracted more attention than any of the other Exposition structures, and visitors from the east will find it the most interesting thing about an Exposition in which nearly everything will be interesting.

The mammoth structure, American in design, American in construction, is distinctly northwestern in the materials of which it is constructed. Nowhere else in the world could one find many fir trees six feet in diameter for a length of over fifty feet, and one fir tree as great in thickness and length as a railroad coach.

The building has an environment admirably suited to its nature. On one side stand the other Exposition palaces, a long row of stately structures gleaming in the ivory whiteness of their coats of staff. On the other side is a little stretch of woodland, then a beautiful little canyon, and beyond, the foothills of the Cascades, their sides covered with native fir trees that have stood there since the days of Lewis and Clark. From the galleries of the Forestry Building the view on one side embraces the main Exposition picture, with all the life and motion, and color, and noise and gaudy display that must characterize a world's fair, and on the other the contrast of natural woodland, quiet, sombre, serene, with the valley which nature's hand has chiseled, and the foothills which no man could ever build.

The forestry building is 205 feet long by 108 feet wide, thus occupying half the space of a Portland city block. Two

VIEW IN CENTENNIAL PARK, LEWIS AND CLARK EXPOSITION

miles of five and six foot fir logs, eight miles of poles, and tons of stakes and cedar shingles were used in its construction. One of the monster logs, no larger than many others, was found to weigh 32 tons.

There is an old song that runs:

"For it's fourteen miles from Schenectady to Troy,
Remember that when you've walked it, my boy," etc.

If one of the base logs in the Forestry Building, 52 feet long and six feet in diameter, were cut into standard size flooring boards one inch thick and three wide, the boy in the song could walk all the dreary fourteen miles on these flooring boards placed end to end.

To figure it another way: One of the logs contains enough lumber with which to build a one-story cottage, 40x40 feet in size, with a fence around it, and board walk to lead up to it, and there would still be enough wood left to kindle the fire in the grate for many months.

While in a general way the building looks like a log house, the details of the structure distinguish it and give it a stateliness of appearance in keeping with the general architectural excellence of the Exposition structures. The upper half of the building is constructed of cedar bark shingles, placed eighteen inches to the weather. The ends of the structure are gabled, and two balconies, set into the ends, one above the other, add to the architectural appearance. The entrances on the long sides are between tree pillars set up to form a colonnade. Primitive methods of construction have been used as far as possible. There is no carpentry work about the building, the logs being framed together with tree-nails and old-fashioned wooden pins. An overhanging roof adds much to the appearance of the structure.

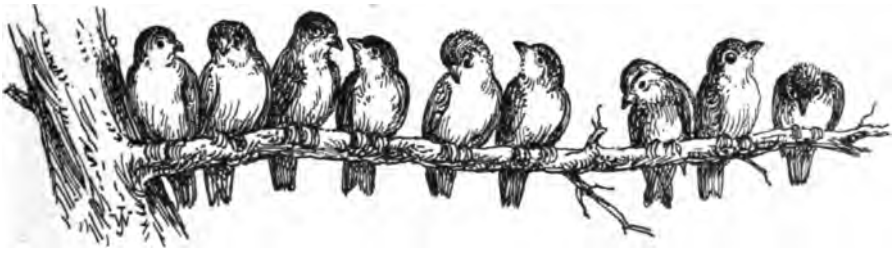
The interior of the building as well as the exterior, is in itself an exhibit of the forest wealth of the Pacific Northwest. As one enters by the main entrance he sees before him a veritable forest of fir trees, as

thick as a man is tall, and towering to the roof fifty feet above. The timbers, with the bark still on, like the logs used in the construction of the sides, stand straight and sturdy as they did in the primeval forests where they were cut. There are fifty-two of these woodland giants which support the roof, and as many more, not so tall, which support balconies which run around the entire building. Rustic stairways give access to the balconies, and rustic railings serve to protect the visitors from danger of falling to the floor below.

The forest giants used in constructing the building were felled in the Columbia river forests, about seventy-five miles from Portland. After being shorn of their branches they were placed in cradles to guard against the bark being torn off, and dragged to the river bank, where they were formed into rafts and floated down the river. From the Columbia, the logs were guided into the Willamette, and from the latter stream they were floated at high water over the narrow strip of land that separates the river from Guild's Lake, the natural "grand basin" of the Exposition.

From the lake the trees were raised to the site of the Forestry Building by means of a giant skidway more than a quarter of a mile long. A mammoth crane, operated by means of a specially constructed forty horse-power donkey engine, was used to set the logs in place. Twenty thousand feet of wire cable were necessary for the hoisting and guys.

While the building will exemplify in its construction the forest wealth of Oregon, its contents will show the progress of the saw-mill industry in the Pacific Northwest. In the balconies and in other parts of the buildings will be displayed a complete exhibit of finished timber products, together with samples of all the woods grown in the Pacific Northwest. The exhibit, taken in connection with the structure which will house it, will convince people of the greatness of the Pacific Northwest's timber resources as nothing else could.



LIQUID AMBER (SWEET GUM TREE)
Photo by Mrs. Seavey.

SIBERIAN JUNIPER (NEEDLE EVERGREEN)
Photo by Mrs. Seavey.

Songs of the Trees

UNDER THE GREENWOOD TREE

From "As You Like It."

Under the greenwood tree
Who loves to lie with me,
And tune his merry note
Unto the sweet bird's throat,
Come hither, come hither, come hither:
Here shall he see
No enemy
But winter and rough weather.

Who doth ambition shun,
And loves to live i' the sun,
Seeking the food he eats,
And pleased with what he gets,
Come hither, come hither, come hither:
Here shall he see
No enemy
But winter and rough weather.

—Shakespeare.

FAIR PLEDGES OF A FRUITFUL TREE

Fair pledges of a fruitful tree,
Why do ye fall so fast?
Your date is not so past
But you may stay yet here awhile
To blush and gently smile,
And go at last.

What! were ye born to be
An hour or half's delight,
And so to bid good night?
'Tis pity Nature brought ye forth,
Merely to show your worth,
And lose you quite.

But you are lovely leaves, where we
May read how soon things have
Their end, though ne'er so brave;
And after they have shown their pride
Like you awhile, they glide
Into the grave.

—Robert Herrick.

THE BRAVE OLD OAK

A song to the oak, the brave old oak,
Who hath ruled in the greenwood long;
Here's health and renown to his broad green crown,
And his fifty arms so strong.
There's fear in his frown when the sun goes down,
And the fire in the west fades out;
And he showeth his might on a wild midnight,
When the storms through his branches shout.

Then here's to the oak, the brave old oak,
Who stands in his pride alone;
And still flourish he, a hale green tree,
When a hundred years are gone!

In the days of old, when the spring with cold
Had brightened his branches gray,
Through the grass at his feet crept maidens sweet,
To gather the dew of May.
And on that day to the rebeck gay
They frolicked with the lovesome swains;
They are gone, they are dead, in the churchyard laid,
But the tree it still remains.

Then here's, etc.

He saw the rare times when the Christmas chimes
Was a merry sound to hear,
When the squire's wide hall and the cottage small
Were filled with good English cheer.
Now gold hath the sway we all obey,
And a ruthless king is he;
But he never shall send our ancient friend
To be tossed on the stormy sea.

Then here's, etc. —*H. F. Chorley.*

UNDER THE CEDARCROFT CHESTNUT

Trim set in ancient sward, his manful bole
Upbore his frontage largely toward the sky.
We could not dream but that he had a soul:
What virtue breathed from out his bravery!

We gazed o'erhead: far down our deepening eyes
Rained glamours from his green midsummer mass.
The worth and sum of all his centuries
Suffused his mighty shadow on the grass.

A Presence large, a grave and steadfast Form
Amid the leaves' light play and fantasy,
A calmness conquered out of many a storm,
A Manhood mastered by a chestnut-tree!

Then while his monarch fingers downward held
The rugged burrs wherewith his state was rife,
A voice of large authorative Eld
Seemed uttering quickly parables of life:

How Life in truth was sharply set with ills;
A kernel cased in quarrels; yea, a sphere
Of stings, and hedge-hog-round of mortal quills:
How most men itched to eat too soon i' the year,

And took but wounds and worries for their pains,
Whereas the wise withheld their patient hands,
Nor plucked green pleasures till the sun and rains
And seasonable ripenings burst all bands
And opened wide the liberal bands of life.
There, O my Friend, beneath the chestnut bough,
Gazing on thee immerged in modern strife,
I framed a prayer of fervency—that thou,

In soul and stature larger than thy kind,
Still more to this strong Form might'st liken thee,
Till thy whole Self in every fibre find
The tranquil lordship of thy chestnut tree.

—*Sidney Lanier.*

The Catalpa Speciosa

An Interview with John P. Brown*

Editor of *Arboriculture*, Connersville, Ind.

IN pursuing my researches into the life and habits of the *Catalpa speciosa* I have traveled three hundred thousand miles, traversing every state, save one, as well as Canada, Mexico and Central America, and have found and recorded many thousands of catalpa trees which have been transported from their homes in the Wabash Valley, in order to determine the extent of territory to which the trees were adapted, the soils suited to their growth, and their hardiness in rigorous climates, as well as their behavior under tropic conditions. The result has been that apparently there is no limit, yet found, between latitudes 45 degrees north and 40 degrees south of the equator.

There has been no assistance rendered in all this work by any government or state, the expenses having been met by my own labors as civil engineer and other employment, until in 1897 the organization of the International Society of Arboriculture was effected, since which time the society has steadily grown, and has for most part borne the expense. Ex-President Benjamin Harrison and Governor James A. Mount, of Indiana, General Lew Wallace and many eminent citizens of this and other lands have been members of this society. Hon. J. Sterling Morton, of Nebraska, was our first President, continuing as such to the time of his death.

*Mr. John P. Brown, editor of *Arboriculture*, is by profession a civil engineer. His work on railroads and government surveys has taken him all over this continent and enabled him to pursue his favorite study, that of American forests. In 1875 he became interested in the rapid growth and the varied possibilities of the *Catalpa speciosa*, a tree whose peculiar value was recognized and called to public attention by General William Henry Harrison as long ago as 1818. For the last thirty years Mr. Brown has devoted himself to the study of the catalpa and conducted a successful campaign of education through which the true variety of catalpa has been distinguished and remarkably extensive plantings have been fostered.—EDITOR.

General William J. Palmer, of Colorado, succeeded Mr. Morton, and is still President of the Society. No other person has done so much to advance the interests of the Society, by moral encouragement and financial support, as has General Palmer, who as a railway President has enabled the Society to reach and interest the great railways of America in forest planting and management.

At the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, the Society made an exhibit of the catalpa which attracted the attention and secured the admiration of the world, and for which they were awarded the grand prize. Even the residents of the region of which the catalpa was indigenous, and who were familiar with it from childhood, were amazed at the many uses for which the wood could be employed, the beauty of finish, the elegance of the furniture made from the wood, the magnificent carvings, handsome veneers and inlaid panels. Until now they had valued it for its durability, having known it as good for fence rails and posts.

Railway officials and engineers here learned that catalpa was the peer of mahogany for passenger-car finish, and *par excellence* for telegraph poles and railway sleepers, for here were samples which had served their purpose in the track for one-third of a century with no indications of decay, this being four times the life of white oak, seven times the durability of pine, and twice as long as creosoted ties.

Paper manufacturers found a new value in catalpa for wood pulp and book paper, both of which were in this exhibit.

Botanical writers had published that catalpa wood was not strong. That was disproven at the St. Louis exhibit by practical and most severe tests.

Objectors had pronounced the trees to be small, crooked, and without material

value. In answer to this a dozen large-sized photographs of natural trees in forests showed the true habit of *Catalpa speciosa* as being very tall and straight, while actual trees by their presence gave their own evidence, and proved that these people were mistaken in the variety of catalpa which had come under their observation.

Railway presidents visited the exhibit and were convinced. Other companies sent special officials and engineers to examine the exhibit, some of whom also visited the native forests on the Wabash, and found they had not been misrepresented.

Foreign governments sent representatives to investigate the subject, and from their reports have begun the extensive planting of this American tree.

Heretofore manufacturers had used only those woods which had required more than a century to grow, and after these forests have been consumed, will require an equal period for their reproduction. Never before had a rapidly maturing tree been found suitable for any purpose of the manufacturer other than as fuel, and such have slight value in heat units.

It was a revelation to see a railway car of real magnificence entirely constructed from a tree which had been produced in less than two decades. The problem of forest reproduction for lumber, paper, cross-ties, for the uses of transportation, manufactures, the mines as well as for agriculture, was solved by this exhibit.

The result has been an awakening among consumers of wood such as has never before been experienced. The demands for seeds and trees of *Catalpa speciosa,* which can be relied upon as true, is far greater than can be supplied, while many hundreds of thousands of inferior trees are still being scattered throughout the world by careless dealers.

A number of great railway systems have begun the planting of forests, for the purpose of growing ties and lumber, although some officials still look upon the work as experimental.

The first large plantation of catalpa made in the United States was in Southeast Missouri, half a century ago, by the Iron Mountain Railway. The officials of this pioneer railway were convinced, even at that early period, that forest planting by railways would in time become necessary, and that the catalpa had all the essential qualities for railway timber, and two hundred acres were devoted to this experiment.

The road had largely been constructed upon ties of catalpa, all the telegraph poles of this wood were used so far as they could be procured, while no other timber was purchased for fence posts in the region where they existed.

Seeds of *Catalpa speciosa* from the Wabash Valley had floated down the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers, and been carried to the interior by the overflowing back waters, and some of these trees were growing along the railway line; while the southern or *bignonioides* catalpa existed in Arkansas and Missouri. Thus both varieties were present in this locality, and, of course, many hybrids. At this period the varieties had not been classified; they were called indiscriminately catalpa.

Unfortunately the seed for this first experiment was purchased from seedsmen, who had imported from Japan the small ornamental variety, *kempferii,* and after years of waiting, obtaining only shrub growths; the plantation was abandoned and mostly destroyed. While this Japanese variety yet remained a seed firm gathered thousands of pounds of seed, which was distributed throughout Europe and America under the impression that it was the great forest tree, *Catalpa speciosa.*

The demand for catalpa seed which followed the agitation about thirty years ago also caused the distribution of vast quantities of *bignonioides* seed, while the difficulty and expense of gathering seed from large trees, a hundred feet in height,

discouraged the distribution of the true variety.

The next plantation, six hundred and forty acres, was made at Farlington, Kan., by Mr. H. H. Hunnewell, for the Kansas City, Ft. Scott and Gulf Railway Company, now part of the Frisco system. The mistake was made here of too close planting, twenty-seven hundred trees per acre, and the constant refusal of the manager to thin them and allow sufficient space for the trees, although I have urged him to do so frequently during the past eight years.

During the past year, under a new management, $100,000 worth of fence posts have been removed, leaving permanent trees on the tract. Instead of $100,000, which has been the income after twenty-five years' waiting, had the trees been planted at greater distance, so they could develop, five hundred and forty-four thousand first-class cross-ties should have been produced, worth half a million dollars.

The next experiment was made by the Pennsylvania Railway Company eighteen years ago on the lines in Indiana, the wrong varieties being purchased. They were planted in hard, unplowed ground along the track, or right of way, where the telegraph linemen destroyed their usefulness by cutting to prevent interference with the wires. The prominence of this row of two hundred thousand trees, mutilated, struggling against both man and nature, has been a serious drawback to the progress of timber planting and has deterred the engineers of the Pennsylvania Railway from making other more rational efforts at catalpa growing.

Mr. L. W. Yaggy, a capitalist of Lake Forest, Ill., planted five hundred acres of catalpa some dozen years ago on his farm near Hutchinson, Kan. This has been one of Mr. Yaggy's most profitable investments, as he declares. He recently sold $30,000 worth of fence posts from the thinnings of this tract, yet has as many remaining which are for sale.

Several more recent plantings have been made by private parties, ranging from fifty to five hundred acres.

Three years ago the more modern system of planting at greater distances was begun, the plantation of the Illinois Central Railway Company, at Harahan, La., eight miles from New Orleans, being prominent. This tract was formerly a sugar plantation, the land having been left in high ridges seven feet apart, with many deep ditches for drainage. This distance seemed too close, and part of the tree rows were planted on alternate sugar-cane ridges, while in the rice land the trees were set 8 x 8 feet. There are two hundred and fifty acres planted. The soil is alluvial, delta land, but of a character quite difficult to work, and was dense with Bermuda grass and wild cane, having been abandoned for cultivation many years since. It is expensive to cultivate, but the trees are growing rapidly. This company has also two hundred acres near DuQuoin, Ill., planted a year later, which are making good progress. This territory is underlaid with coal, which is being mined, and it is expected that the thinnings will be utilized here for mine timbers.

The Louisville and Nashville Railway has eight large plantations of catalpa, one at Pensacola, Fla., in pure highland sand. This sand has produced a crop of yellow pine timber. It grows good pecan trees; deep-rooted pear trees flourish, and the catalpa trees are doing well. They were planted in the spring of 1904. Another plantation is in the Alabama river bottoms, at Selma, Ala., one on the banks of Licking river, near Newport, Ky., others at Shawneetown and McLeansboro, Ill. All are doing well, but are too recent to determine results.

The Southern Pacific Railway Company distributed several thousand trees through Texas, portions being in the arid region, where irrigation is required. The officials report them to be in very satisfactory condition.

The New Orleans and Northeastern Railway distributed some thousands of trees along the line through Louisiana and Mississippi. Passengers have reported to me that they give promise of excellent results.

The New England railways have planted perhaps one hundred thousand trees, a portion by the Boston and Maine Railway, at South Lawrence, Mass., in the valley of the Merrimac River; others by the Boston and Albany Railway, near Newton, Mass. If these prove satisfactory, the experiment will be extended.

In Utah, some years since, the Rio Grande Western Railway established a nursery of sixty-five thousand catalpa trees at Provo. Part of these were transplanted, two years ago, to points along the line between Ogden, Utah, and Grand Junction, Col. In most part they have been abandoned and destroyed by fires and stock. One fine grove remains at Salt Lake City, which will be taken care of until it is determined how the alkaline soil affects the catalpa tree. There are many fine catalpa trees in Utah which formed the basis for this extensive planting.

The Florida East Coast Railway was the last to undertake catalpa planting for cross-ties, a tract having been purchased between Jacksonville and St. Augustine, which is now being planted. Upon this tract, in the dooryard of a farmer, Mr. F. J. Register, and in exactly the same pure sand of Florida, stands a catalpa tree which was planted in 1896 as a small switch. After but nine years' growth this tree measures fifty-seven inches girth (nineteen inches thickness) at six feet above the ground. This nine-year-old Florida tree will now make four cross-ties. A square mile of such trees would furnish in one decade enough sleepers to build two hundred and thirty-seven miles of new track, or supply the renewals for twenty-three hundred and seventy miles of railway.

At Gainesville and at Pensacola, Florida, as well as at other points, there are trees which show an equally good record for rapid growth, while at New Orleans trees fourteen years old are twenty-six inches in diameter. All of which goes to show that the South, and especially Florida, is best adapted to the growing of catalpa forests. Several parties and companies have signified their intention of planting from one thousand to several thousand acres of forest as soon as catalpa trees can be secured and land prepared on which to plant.

The Mexican Central Railway last year planted several thousand *Catalpa speciosa* trees, and the Mexican government experimented with several thousand. The results have been such that the Secretary de Fomento has purchased as many more, which are being planted at Tampico.

The Dominion government of New Zealand, after extensive trial in thirty experiment stations, is satisfied of the success of the Indiana catalpa in that country, twenty degrees south of the equator.

Quite extensive plantings have also been made in France, Italy, Germany and Great Britain, while in Korea, from seed which we sent last year, trees have grown to be four feet in height in one season's growth. Far more extensive plantings are being made this season by missionaries in Korea, under direction of the International Society of Arboriculture and with its support.

The state of Ohio last year distributed one hundred thousand *Catalpa speciosa* trees, through the State Experiment Station at Wooster, to encourage the farmers in tree planting, while more are being sent out the present season.

States, nations, corporations and individuals in large numbers have made requests upon this society for trees, seeds, and information upon arboriculture, to all of whom the Society has responded promptly. Two hundred and fifty thousand trees have thus been contributed and two hundred pounds of seed, enough to

produce two and one-half million trees, while two hundred and fifty thousand magazines and printed circulars have been distributed.

The correspondence increased so greatly as to demand the publication of a monthly magazine by the society, and *Arboriculture* was established, with offices at Connersville, Ind.

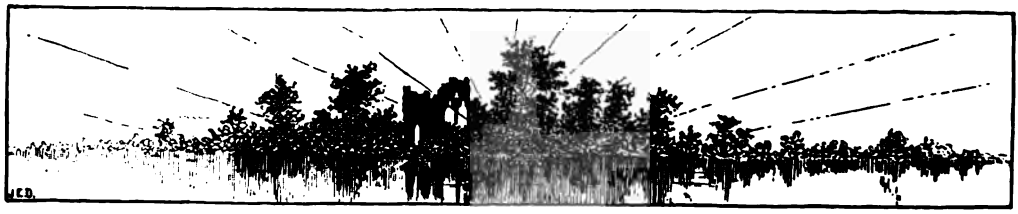
More than one hundred large plantations of catalpa trees are under the direction and supervision of the Society, requiring the constant attention of the secretary, in visiting which, with other duties, requires one thousand miles' travel every week of the year.

This work has not been accomplished without great opposition from many men of prominence, who have placed almost insurmountable obstacles in our way. Often this has been caused through ignorance of the parties, their observations having been confined to the millions of spurious seeds and trees sent abroad by careless dealers. Hence the progress has been slow, with a prolonged, severe struggle, but the consciousness of being right, and the constant friendship and hearty support and coöperation of several railway presidents and high officials of the railways, and the members of our society, have urged me to continue these efforts for so many years, even when the outlook was far from encouraging.

There have been severe criticisms for the prominence given the Catalpa in *Arboriculture,* and of my devotion to this subject; but after half a century of laborious effort by earnest advocates of forestry, it has been impossible to create an interest in actual, practical forest planting, or care of forest by any large number of citizens, when it was realized that a century must elapse before a majority of our forest trees would mature. Only a few soft-wooded and little-valued trees, soft maples, box elder, cottonwood, etc., have been planted to any extent, while the more valuable woods, oak, pine, cypress, walnut, hickory, etc., which require from seventy to six hundred years to reach merchantable condition, have been almost totally neglected.

Americans are migratory. Few old established estates exist. We in America have not yet learned the lessons which the European nations have practised for centuries—that of making the forests a perpetual source of income.

By proving to the world the valuable character of *Catalpa speciosa,* and in the distribution of seeds and trees, *Arboriculture* has been instrumental in creating an interest, and secured the planting of thousands of acres of forest which could not have been accomplished otherwise.



Nature Study

Bird Study II

By Anna Botsford Comstock

Bureau of Nature Study, Cornell University.

GREAT interest in bird architecture and much knowledge of bird skill may be derived by studying the birds' nests, which are easily found in winter, after the protecting foliage has gone. Such nests studied carefully may, in many cases, be identified by the use of Mr. Dugmore's admirable book, "Bird Homes."

Let each member of the Nature Study class find some such nest and describe it according to the following scheme, so that I may be able to identify it:

1. Where you found the nest: (a) If on the ground, describe locality. (b) If on a plant, shrub or tree, tell the species if possible. (c) If on a tree, tell whether it was on a branch, in a fork, or hanging by the end of the twigs. (d) How high from the ground, and what was the locality? (e) If on or in a building, how situated?
2. Did the nest have any arrangement to protect it from the rain?
3. Give the size of the nest, the diameter of the inside and the outside; also the depth of the inside.
4. What is the form of the nest? Are its sides flaring or straight? Is the nest shaped like a cup, basket or pocket?
5. What materials compose the outside of the nest and how are they arranged?
6. Of what materials is the lining made, and how are they arranged? If hair or feathers are used, on what creature did they grow?
7. How are the materials of the nest held together,—that is, are they woven, plastered, or held in place by environment?
8. Had the nest anything peculiar about it either in situation, construction or material that would tend to render it invisible to the casual glance?

OUTLINE FOR BIRD OBSERVATION IN THE FIELD

A note-book should be made ready by preparing each page with the numbers and the words capitalized in the following outline. The part included in parentheses should be committed to memory so as to aid in taking notes. As the bird is observed, the note should be made opposite the appropriate place on the page. The outline given is one which our Nature Study classes used for several years, and was adopted from the outline given by Florence Merriam in her most useful and admirable book, "Birds of Village and Field."

NAME. DATE.

I. SIZE. (Compared with English Sparrow, Robin, Crow.)
II. COLORS. (Bright; dull.)
III. MARKINGS.
  1. TOP OF HEAD.
  2. BACK.
  3. BREAST.
  4. WINGS.
  5. TAIL.
IV. SHAPE.
  1. BODY. (Long and slender; short and stocky.)
  2. BILL. (Short and stout; long and slender; long and heavy; hooked; curved.)
  3. WINGS. (Short and round; long and slender.)
  4. TAIL. (Forked; notched; square; fan shaped.)
V. MOVEMENTS. (Hop; walk; creep up trees; bob head and wag tail; twitch tail from side to side.)
VI. FLIGHT
  1. FAST. (Direct; abrupt and zigzag; smooth and circling.)
  2. SLOW. (Flapping; sailing or soaring; flapping and sailing alternately.)
VII. LOCALITIES FREQUENTED. (Gardens; orchards; roadside fences; meadows; thickets; woods; rivers; lakes; and marshes.)
VIII. FOOD AND MANNER OF OBTAINING IT.
IX. SONG.
  1. MANNER AND TIME OF SINGING. (From perch; in the air.)
  2. CHARACTER OF SONG. (Plaintive; happy; long; short.)
  3. CALL NOTES. (Signal; warning; anger; fear; pain; protest.)

LESSON

9. Describe the robin according to above outline.
10. Describe the English Sparrow, both sexes, according to the outline.

This is the eighth of a series of Home Nature Study Lessons for the parents and teachers prepared by the Cornell Bureau of Nature Study. Lessons for children of the Chautauqua Junior Naturalist clubs will appear each month in *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, New York. The following articles have already appeared in THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Leaves, October; Seed Distribution, November; Evergreens I, December; Evergreens II, January; Tree Study in Winter, March; The Cow, April; Beginning Bird Study, May.

HOW TO KNOW THE COMMON BIRDS

The best way to become acquainted with the birds of a locality is to take up a group of closely allied species and learn to distinguish them; then take another group, and so on until all of the sparrows, all of the blackbirds, all of the thrushes, all of the woodpeckers, etc., of a region are perfectly familiar. After two or three years of study according to this plan, a knowledge of the common species of all the bird families of a locality may be gained.

The family which I have chosen for the Home Nature Study class beginning bird study this spring is that of the flycatchers. These birds were chosen because four or five species are common almost everywhere in New York State. Their appearance, attitudes and movements are very characteristic and the songs and nests of several are well known; also, the flycatchers are of the greatest economic importance.

THE FLYCATCHERS AND HOW TO IDENTIFY THEM

The surest way to identify a flycatcher is to note its method of feeding. It sits on some dead branch, or on a fence, or on a telegraph wire, always in a place free from dead branches and other obstructions. It sits erect, the tail drooped except that it is frequently jerked up or down as if to help the bird keep its balance. From this open perch the bird flies up into the air after passing insects, perhaps holding itself poised on its rapidly moving wings while it captures the coveted morsel, then returning to the exact spot from whence it flew. The tail of the dog has always been regarded as an organ most eloquent in expressing the emotions of its owner; the tail of a flycatcher is quite as expressive of the mental activities of the bird,—its movements show plainly an alert, nervous attitude; this twitching seems to indicate that its owner is more than ready to swoop up or down to gather in some unlucky insect which comes within its range of vision.

There are nine flycatchers which have been found within the boundaries of New York State. They may be distinguished as follows:

The *kingbird* is almost black above and has its tail tipped with white in a most striking way. This character alone distinguishes it from the other species.

The *phœbe* and the *great-crest* are somewhat similar in color above, and *neither have wing bars which are noticeable.* The great-crest is sulphur yellow on the lower side and when in flight the tail is almost cinnamon brown. It lives in the woods especially along water courses, and takes its place high up on the trees and its song is harsh and startling. The phœbe is not noticeably yellow beneath and haunts lowly places; it has a peculiar manner of twitching its tail, giving it a sidewise movement, which is most characteristic. The well-known song of the phœbe distinguishes it from all the others of the group.

The *olive-sided flycatcher* is about the size of the phœbe but is more olive brown above and has brownish dark sides and breast. Two tufts of white feathers on either side the tail show during flight. Its song is a loud and constant "pip-pip-ee." It is found in the Catskills and the Adirondacks where fire or man has made clearings in the forests. It is rarely seen elsewhere in New York.

The *wood peewee* and the *least flycatcher* or *chebec* are colored similarly above and *have ivory white wing bars.* The chebec is only about two thirds as large as the wood peewee and is much more likely to frequent the orchard and trees about the house. The songs of the two described elsewhere are very different and easily distinguishable.

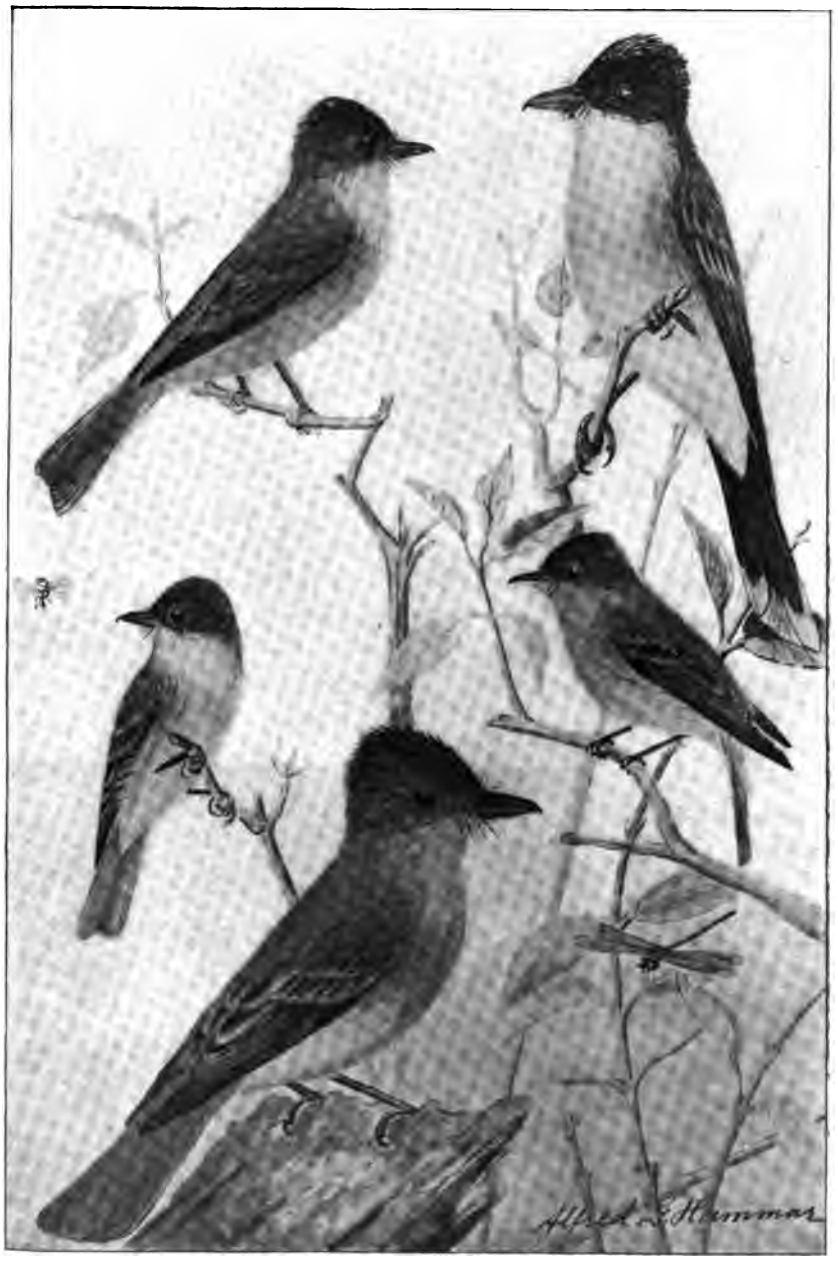
The *alder flycatcher* has brownish or grayish wing bars which distinguish it from the chebec and the green-crested, and its under parts are whitish instead of yellow like the yellow bellied. Its throat is pure white, this being another mark that distinguishes it from the chebec, with which it is likely to be confused. It lives in alder thickets, along streams and in swamps.

The *Acadian flycatcher* is olive green above with white throat and whitish breast; its wing bars are buff. It occurs in New York only in the southeastern part of the Hudson Valley; its song is "pe-ah-yuk" or "wake-up."

The *yellow bellied* is another small species and is distinguished from the others by having the entire under parts distinctly yellow, shaded with olive on the throat, breast and sides. It occurs only in retired places having a special liking for low woods and swamps; its song is a short *"pewick,"* it sometimes has a call a little like that of the wood peewee.

Of all the above flycatchers only the kingbird, the phœbe, the wood peewee and the chebec are common to most localities in New York. Next to these the great-crest and the alder are most commonly found.

The Kingbird.—This undaunted bird has the reputation of being a fighter, but it is simply a citizen who looks carefully after his rights. When it chooses a site



PHŒBE
CHEBEC
KINGBIRD
WOOD PEEWEE
GREAT-CRESTED FLYCATCHER

for a nest it makes up its mind where, out in space, its line fence extends; what though this fence is like the Tropic of Cancer, in that it is quite an imaginary circle, yet woe betide the large bird, especially if it be hawk or crow which dares to push across it. The kingbird is an example of the power of fearlessness in defending a just cause. Any one who has seen it chase a scared and squawking crow or a hawk trying to beat a dignified retreat, must have paid it the mental tribute which is always due to bravery and daring.

Fully ninety per cent of the kingbird's food is insects and these are of the sort we

can best spare, such as weevils, grasshoppers, beetles which are the adults of wire-worms, etc. It has also a bad reputation among bee men, which it has done

"GO AWAY"—SAYS MOTHER KINGBIRD

little to deserve. The United States Biological Survey has proved this by opening two hundred and eighty-one stomachs of kingbirds, and of all these only fourteen contained bees. There were only fifty bees in all, and of these forty were certainly drones and only four were surely workers. The kingbird is sufficiently astute to leave alone food with so much hot seasoning in it as the worker bees are supposed to have; and by killing off drones it is a help instead of a detriment to the apiarist. The kingbird winters in Central and South America, and, therefore, appears here somewhat late in the season. It builds its nest in orchards and other civilized places, and never takes care to protect it from sight. It has implicit confidence in its own ability to protect its nest.

11. Why should the king bird be preserved by the farmer and fruit grower?
12. Why is a pair of kingbirds of especial value near poultry yards?
13. Describe the kingbird according to the outline given for bird study in the field.
14. Have you ever seen a kingbird's nest? If so, describe it. Do you know the kingbird's note? If so, describe it.
15. Do both male and female kingbirds attack hawks and crows?
16. Have you ever seen the bright orange feathers on the crown of the kingbird's head? They are only visible when the crest is raised.

The Great-crested Flycatcher,—This is as large as the kingbird and has more of the color of the phœbe, but will never be mistaken for either on account of its habits. It lives in the woods or in thickly grown orchards and away from people. It is especially fond of water courses through woodlands. Its favorite perch is the dead top of a forest tree. Its song is a loud interrogative exclamation, quite harsh and challenging. Mr. Chapman says that he exclaims "what" and then chuckles, but some have spelled the note "wheep." It is sufficiently startling after one has heard it never to be forgotten.

The great-crest has the strange habit of putting a snake skin about its nest. The

THE ALDER FLYCATCHER ON NEST

reason for this probably lies thousands of years back in the history of the species and has nothing to do with present day conditions. A species of flycatcher in South America and another in Arizona have a similar habit; and they all prob-

ably inherited this habit from some ancestral bird, which perhaps devised this method for protecting its nest from some creature dreadfully afraid of snakes, like the monkey. The great-crest builds its nest in a hollow limb; its eggs are cream white, streaked lengthwise with chocolate; it winters in southern Florida and Central America.

17. Have you ever seen the great-crest? If so describe its appearance.

18. Have you ever found a nest with a snake skin? If so describe it.

The Phœbe.—This friendly bird which builds its nest in the piazza or under the eaves, or on the rafters of the shed or barn, or on the timber under the bridge that crosses the creek, is the most familiar to us of all the flycatchers. Its sweet, dissyllabic song is beloved by every boy and girl in the country, and is listened to with much more pleasure than that accorded to many a longer and more pretentious warble. The phœbe-note of the chickadee in spring is often confused with that of the true phœbe. The difference between these songs should be learned. A more beneficent bird than the phœbe does not exist from the human standpoint, for the phœbes spend all their time catching noxious insects; especially do they love to hover over the water and destroy mosquitoes; or if they have their nests near the barn, they spend their energies in catching the flies which annoy cattle. Ninety-three per cent of the food of the phœbe is insects, and the remainder berries of wild plants which are of no use to us. The phœbe winters in the tropics and does not arrive here until after the robins and the bluebirds.

19. Describe the phœbe by the outline for bird study in the field.

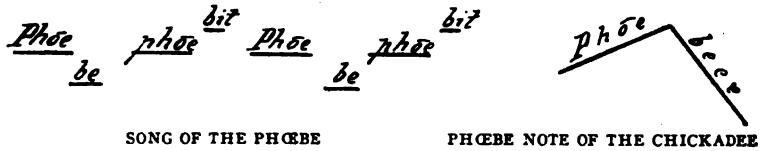
20. Have you ever seen the nest of the phœbe? If so, describe it and tell where it was situated. Of what material is it made? The color of the eggs?

21. Do you know the note of the phœbe from the phœbe song of the chickadee when you hear either?

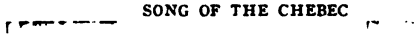
22. Why should the phœbe go south winters and the chickadee stay here?

23. Why should the phœbes be induced to build in cow barns and of what use are they to farmers?

The Least Flycatcher or Chebec.—This mite of energy has a love for civilization almost as marked as that of the kingbird or phœbe. It particularly likes orchards, where it takes its place on some topmost branch and there utters its short note "chebec" over and over with many vivacious flirts of the tail. It looks like a small specimen of a wood peewee as it usually has quite well marked wing bars. Its note often changes from the "chebec" to "check." It is a most industrious singer and it is as noisy as it is beneficial in the orchard, where it destroys hundreds of insects every day. This little bird winters in the tropics. It builds its nest in the forks of branches and makes it daintily of finely shredded bark and hair and the down of plants and rootlets.



SONG OF THE PHŒBE — PHŒBE NOTE OF THE CHICKADEE



SONG OF THE CHEBEC

24. Have you ever seen the chebec? If so, when and where?

25. How would you tell the chebec from the wood peewee?

26. How distinguish it from the phœbe bird?

27. Describe chebec according to outline given for field study of birds.

The Wood Peewee.—While this bird loves the depths of the woods, yet it is learning the advantages of civilization and the telephone wire as a point of vantage. Every year of late we have seen the

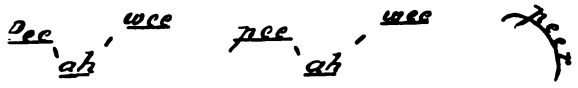
peewees on the Cornell campus resting on the telephone wires "between bites." The wood peewee is a constant singer, and

YOUNG PEEWEES

its plaintive, sweet trissyllabic "pee-ah-wee" is a certain means of identification. It does not flirt its tail quite so constantly nor raise its crest quite so excitedly as does the phœbe. Its ivory white wing-bars distinguish it readily from the phœbe. It is a most useful bird to our forests, feeding upon insects which injure both timber and leaves.

The wood peewee's nest is an exquisite structure; it is beautifully curved inside and made soft with fibrous materials. On the outside it is usually decorated with lichens, and is so smoothly connected with the limb on which it rests, that it seems almost a part of it.

28. Do you know the wood peewee? Where do you find it?
29. Have you heard its song? Describe.
30. Did you ever see its nest? What advantage would it be to a nest to be covered with lichens?
31. Describe the wood peewee according to outline given for field study.



SONG OF THE WOOD PEEWEE

NEST AND EGGS OF WOOD PEEWEE

A SIGNIFICANT FOREST CONGRESS

The American Forest Congress held in Washington January 3 to 6, 1905, was the greatest gathering of its kind ever held in the United States. Not only was it great in point of numbers but it represented many varied interests: lumbermen, grazers, railroadmen, miners, and irrigation men, as well as educators and statesmen, met in a spirit of amity to consider a question of vital interest to all: the preservation of the American forests and the water supply dependent upon the forests.

President Roosevelt opened the Congress with an excellent speech in which he condemned the too common type of American settler that "skins" the land of its timber and passes on to unexploited fields, leaving a denuded waste with an uncertain water supply to the permanent settler, the farmer, who follows. But excellent as were President Roosevelt's remarks they must have had little effect upon the hard headed business men assembled, had they not fortunately coincided on patriotic grounds with the general opinions of the congress, held on grounds purely practical. It was the very evident belief of all the interests assembled that a conservative forest policy pays, and, in fact, that the future economic welfare of large sections of our country is absolutely dependent upon a more careful use of our diminishing forest resources. In the common fear of a timber famine, lumbermen, grazers, and miners, who not long ago fought with each other to obtain the greatest slice of natural wealth so freely bestowed by our government in a reckless land policy, were united in the defense of forestry methods which would make for the welfare of each. This recognition of a common commercial interest among formerly warring elements must mean in the near future a far greater advance in the actual preservation of our forests than could have been accomplished in a century by any number of altruistic persons with no commercial or political influence.

The forest policy advocated by the interests represented was one of conservative use. It was agreed that all timber lands, including forest reserves, should be operated with a view to making them permanently profitable through intelligent cutting and replacing. Smaller profits over a long period rather than large immediate profits and no future were regarded by the representatives of large interests as the most satisfactory. Several speakers advocate the encouragement of a conservative policy among private owners of timber lands by a lower rate of taxes on land producing a second growth of timber, and by extensive protection by government foresters against forest fires. The statement of one prominent lumberman is of interest as showing the business wisdom in conservative lumbering even to that individual who is without social conscience and looks no further than his own lifetime, in his endeavor to make as much as possible in the shortest possible time. Speaking of the experience of his own company this lumberman said:

The timber which the company leaves standing after lumbering consists entirely of small trees below eighteen inches in diameter on the stump, the value of which is considerably below the average run of the forest. Every tree contains more or less material which produces lumber of so low a grade that it hardly pays the cost of manufacture, for the smaller trees saw out the grades of small value in far greater proportion than the larger trees. An extensive investigation was made in our sawmill in Alabama to determine the

amount and comparative values of the grades which trees of different sizes will produce. The result of this experiment proved conclusively the relatively low value of the lumber produced from small trees, and was an important factor in influencing the company to lumber conservatively; in other words, it went still further to establish the bad business policy of putting small trees into the mill rather than leaving them to reach a more profitable size.

The actual users of the forests were more prominent in the Congress than those dependent upon the forests for the regulation of water supply. Those utilizing irrigated lands are as yet of small influence compared to the lumbermen, the miners, and the builders of railroads, all of whom are vitally interested in the cutting of trees. Although it was pointed out that the destruction of the forests at the headwaters of the Mississippi resulted in floods more and more devastating each year, yet it seems improbable that agricultural interests injured by such devastations will in the near future bring any great influence to bear in behalf of the only permanent remedy—reforesting. To the average human being a contiguous dyke is a much more substantial and useful thing than a forest some thousand miles away.

The care of forests for the preservation and control of water supply has, however, a very promising outlook in one direction. The growing use of mountain streams for the development of electricity will of necessity demand the preservation of these sources of power, and the importance of well wooded mountain sides will be evident to all intelligent investing capitalists. To those who have a keen interest in the maintenance of existing conditions may be entrusted the care of mountain forests. The restoration of earlier and better conditions for many streams already injured, involving as it does, considerable expense and time, is a remoter contingency.

At the close of the last session of the Congress Mr. Gifford Pinchot, Chief of the Bureau of Forestry, in a brief speech impressed upon the Congress these points:

The bulk of the forests of the United States are now, and must always remain in the hands of the private owner; only as the private owner, large or small, the lumberman, the railroad, the miner, or the man who owns the land becomes interested in forestry and carries out its true principles, shall we succeed in practicing forestry in the United States.

Second, the forests now in government control must remain in government control just so far as they are needed for public purposes. We must have forest reserves, and we shall be forced to extend the area of forest reserves later on, not merely by Presidential proclamation, but by purchase. Lands are passing out of the government's hands every day whose return to its ownership is essential to the well-being of the regions where they lie.

Third, we must begin at once the creation of a national forest service in the United States. We are the only one of the great nations whose forest work is in so chaotic a condition. Our task is to create a clean effective body of men for handling these great forest questions, and in general to take up, just so far as the State organizations are unable to take it up, but always to coöperate with them, the care of the general progress of forestry throughout the United States; for more and more I hope to see the Bureau of Forestry act as a helper and assistant not only to the commercial interests, which is our first duty in the matter, but to all interests affected by the forest. I should like to have every member of this Congress go home with the idea that the Bureau of Forestry is the servant of every one of you, and will give you its help to the very utmost limit of its power.

FROM THE FIELD

The German Forests maintain a population of 400,000 and yield $90,000,000 a year to the national treasury.

Excluding two reserves in Alaska, which cover nearly 5,000,000 acres, there are, in the United States, 51 forest reserves, with a combined area of 57,833,974 acres.

The exhibit of the Forestry Department of the State of Michigan which took a first prize at the St. Louis Exposition was secured by Michigan University, to be used in connection with the course in forestry given there.

The Landscape Architecture Committee of the South Park Improvement Association of

Chicago supplies trees for planting to householders at wholesale rates and offers as well to supply and superintend the planting. It is the desire of the Association to plant trees according to a plan prepared for the whole district. By adherence to a system it is hoped to get the most harmonious results possible under the conditions.

It is reported that Los Angeles, California, is about to plant 3,000 acres of waste land with trees and establish a commercial forest. It is intended that the forest shall be a pleasure ground and park, but through the sale of timber it will be self-supporting as well. Municipally owned forests are not uncommon in Europe, but Los Angeles is said to be the first city in the United States to try the experiment.

Perhaps the most interesting forest reserve belonging to the United States is situated in Porto Rico where a tract of 65,000 acres was set aside by Presidential proclamation in 1903. Of this tract only about 10,000 acres constitute productive forest of commercial importance. About 20,000 acres, however, are wooded, and serve as a check upon floods, which, because of excessive rainfall, are always a menace to the low-lying farms.

The Forestry Committee of the Massachusetts Federation of Women's clubs appeals to all for assistance in arranging a Directory of Historical Trees, giving the location, name, and history of each. The Committee believes that there are many trees of historical and literary interest of which the history and location are known to only a few tree lovers. By calling attention to famous trees it is thought they may be the longer preserved from destruction.

Instances come to light constantly of individuals who have made conservative use of timber lands and found them not only a paying, but a permanently paying, investment. An example from Kentucky is typical. An owner of timber land in that state, in 1847 sold timber at a rate of $1 per acre, the purchaser removing what he wanted. A considerable amount of timber was left standing. In 1870 a sale was made at a rate of $2 per tree, the purchaser taking on an average of three trees to the acre. In 1884 a third sale was made on the same terms as those of the sale preceding.

A beautiful monograph entitled "Tree Planting on Streets and Highways" by William F. Fox, superintendent of State Forests, New York, should be in the hands of all those interested in decorative tree planting. Mr. Fox furnishes his readers much practical advice derived from long experience, and upon one phase of tree life his monograph is particularly valuable—that of coloring in trees. A number of beautiful color plates illustrate autumn foliage and enable the tree planter to judge accurately the effects he may obtain by various color combinations.

Whoever intends to plant ornamental trees and shrubs and is not perfectly familiar with the varieties best suited to all conditions of place and climate, should send for information to an agricultural experiment station at one of the large universities. Bulletins which we have at hand from Cornell University and the University of Wisconsin are extremely practical. The merits and shortcomings of various trees, conditions essential to growth, proper methods of planting and cultivation—all these questions are discussed and many points illustrated by photographs.

The thorough training required of the German forester explains in large degree the superiority of the German forestry system. After graduating from the gymnasium and serving one year in the army the would be forester spends a year in the forest as an apprentice. He then studies two years in one of the academies and follows this with a year's work in economics and law at the university. This general training is complemented by two years of work in the special departments of forestry knowledge. After passing an examination the applicant then becomes a government officer.

"The Village Improvement Association of Norfolk, Conn., has placed enameled signs on the different species of trees found growing on the Norfolk Green. The signs and the inscription were approved by the chief of the department of dendrology in the bureau of forestry at Washington, D. C. Fifteen different species now growing in the park have been marked, but only one of each species is indicated. The signs, which make a very attractive appearance, bear the scientific name of the tree, the common name, and the native place of the tree. Several years ago much progress was made in the attempt to plant in the park a specimen of all the trees native to Norfolk. Many kinds once planted there have lived and have never been replaced."—*Park and Cemetery.*

A bill effecting a very important forest reform was passed on February by Congress. By this bill the control of federal forest reserves passes from the General Land Office of the Department of the Interior to the Department of Agriculture. Thus, in the future, the Bureau of Forestry will have immediate supervision of the reserved tracts, a condition which should result in their more efficient management.

Another piece of legislation was carried through which does away with one of the worst abuses under the government land policy. Formerly anyone holding land in a forest reserve might relinquish it to the government and elect "in lieu thereof" any other unreserved nonmineral public land. Much comparatively worthless land acquired under other laws was exchanged in this way for valuable timber land with a great resultant loss to the government. Congress has finally repealed the iniquitous law permitting such robbery.

The following advice should be heeded by all who have occasion to prune trees. It is taken from a useful little book issued by the Massachusetts Forestry Association entitled "Practical Suggestions for Tree Wardens:" "All cuts made which are of the size of a half-dollar or larger should at once be painted over. A good oil paint of a red-brown color will answer, but the best and cheapest coating is coal tar, which can be obtained at small cost at any gas plant. Pine tar will answer the purpose, but it is not so easily applied as coal tar. In mild weather coal tar does not require melting. A light coating, just enough to cover exposed surfaces, is sufficient. A common lard pail is the best receptacle for carrying the tar, and a short, stiff-bristled, square-

ended brush (a stencil brush, for example) is best adapted to this service. Wind a piece of telegraph wire round the brush handle, and bend one end over to form a hook by which it can be hung on the rim of the pail. A similar hook on the bail of the pail is also useful for hanging the outfit on the ladder rungs."

SOME TREE TOPICS

Forestry in Germany. Illustrated. Raphael G. Zon. THE CHAUTAUQUAN 40: 3, 253 (Nov., 1904).

Forestry and Tree Planting. Programs for club use with extensive bibliographies. THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 40:3, 279 (Nov., 1904).

German and American Forestry Methods. Guenther Thomas. *Forum,* Jan.-March, 1905.

Saving the Southern Forests. Illustrated. Overton W. Price. *World's Work.*

The Railroads and Forestry. Illustrated. John Gifford. *World's Work.*

Forest Making on Barren Lands. Illustrated. Charles Moreau Harger. *Review of Reviews.*

American Forest Congress, complete proceedings. 400 pages. $1.25, postpaid.

List of Available Publications of the Bureau of Forestry, United States Department of Agriculture.

The Bureau of Forestry reports the following list of publications available to those who are interested in forest growing or the use of forest products. To such persons the Bureau gladly furnishes upon request new information as rapidly as it is published.

BULLETINS, NUMBERS:

6. Timber Physics, Part I: Preliminary Report.
7. Forest Influences.
8. Timber Physics, Part II: Progress Report.
9. Report on the use of Metal Railroad Ties and on Preservation Processes and Metal Tie-plates for Wooden Ties.
10. Timber: An Elementary Discussion of the Characteristics and Properties of Wood.
12. Economical Designing of Timber Trestle Bridges.
13. Timber Pines of the Southern United States.
17. Check List of the Forest Trees of the United States.
21. Systematic Plant Introduction.
24. A Primer of Forestry, Parts I and II.
26. Practical Forestry in the Adirondacks.
28. A Short Account of the Big Trees of California.
29. The Forest Nursery.
30. A Forest Working Plan for Township Number 40.
31. Notes on the Red Cedar.
32. A Working Plan for Forest Lands Near Pine Bluff, Ark.
33. The Western Hemlock.
34. A History of the Lumber Industry in the State of New York.
35. Eucalypts Cultivated in the United States.
36. The Woodsman's Handbook.
37. The Hardy Catalpa.
38. The Redwood.
39. Conservative Lumbering at Sewanee, Tenn.
40. A New Method of Turpentine Orcharding.
41. Seasoning of Timber.
42. The Woodlot.
43. A Working Plan for Forest Lands in Hampton and Beaufort Counties, S. C.
44. The Diminished Flow of the Rock River in Wisconsin and Illinois, and Its Relation to the Surrounding Forests.
45. The Planting of White Pine in New England.
46. The Basket Willow.
47. The Forests of Texas.
48. The Forests of Hawaii.
49. The Timber of the Edwards Plateau of Texas.
50. Cross-tie Forms and Rail Fastenings, with Special Reference to Treated Timbers.
52. Forest Planting in Western Kansas.
53. Chestnut in Southern Maryland.

CIRCULARS, NUMBERS:

12. Southern Pine: Mechanical and Physical Properties.
15. Summary of Mechanical Tests of Thirty-two Species of American Woods.
21. Practical Assistance to Farmers, Lumbermen, and Others in Handling Forest Lands.
22. Practical Assistance to Tree Planters.
23. Suggestions to Prospective Forest Students.
24. A New Method of Turpentine Orcharding.
25. Forestry and Lumber Supply
26. Forest Fires in the Adirondacks in 1903.
28. Practical Assistance to Users of Forest Products.
29. Exhibit of Tree Planting in Woodlots at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition.
31. Exhibits of Forest Nurseries at Louisiana Purchase Exposition.
32. Progress Report on the Strength of Structural Timber.

EXTRACTS REPRINTED FROM YEARBOOKS, NUMBERS:

143. Notes on Some Forest Problems (1898).
144. Work of the Division of Forestry for the Farmer (1898).
186. Progress of Forestry in the United States (1899).
187. Practice of Forestry by Private Owners (1899).
212. Forest Extension in the Middle West (1900).
214. Practical Forestry in the Southern Appalachians (1900).
236. Timber Resources of Nebraska (1901).
241. Grazing in the Forest Reserves (1901).
249. Working Plan for Southern Hardwoods, and its Results (1901).
270. Practicability of Forest Planting in the United States (1902).
274. Influence of Forestry upon the Lumber Industry (1902).
288. Tests on the Physical Properties of Timber (1902).

315. Recent Progress in Timber Preservation (1903).
329. The Relation of Forests to Stream Flow (1903).

ANNUAL REPORTS OF THE FORESTER FOR 1900, 1901, 1902, AND 1903

FARMERS' BULLETINS, NUMBERS:

134. Tree Planting on Rural School Grounds.
173. A Primer of Forestry.

FORESTRY ASSOCIATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES

American Forestry Association.—Hon. James Wilson, Pres., Secretary of Agriculture. H. M. Suter, Corresponding Secretary, 510 12th St., N. W. Washington, D. C.
Association for the Protection of the Adirondacks.—Henry S. Harper, Sec'y, Tribune Bldg., New York City.
California Water & Forest Association.—T. C. Friedlander, Sec'y, Room 45, Mills Bldg., San Francisco, California.
Cincinnati Forestry & Improvement Association.—J. B. Peaslee, Pres., Adolph Lene, Secretary.
Colorado Forestry Association.—Jabez Norman, Denver, Colo.
Connecticut Forestry Association.—Miss Mary Winslow, Weatogue.
Forest & Water Society of Southern California.—Wm. H. Knight, Los Angeles, Cal.
Forestry, Water Storage & Manufacturing Association of the State of New York.—John C. Durgin, Sec'y, 1 Broadway, New York.
Franklin Forestry Society.—W. G. Bowers, Sec'y, Chambersburg, Pa.
International Society of Arboriculture.—Gen. Wm. J. Palmer, Pres., Colorado Springs, Colo. John P. Brown, Sec'y, Connersville, Indiana.
Iowa Park & Forestry Association.—Prof. L. H. Pammel, Pres., Ames, Iowa. Thos H. McBride, Sec'y, Iowa City, Iowa.
Massachusetts Forestry Association.—Edwin A. Start, Sec'y, 1118 Tremont Bldg., Boston.
The Mazamas.—Martin W. Gorman, Sec'y, Portland, Oregon.
Michigan Forest, Game & Fish Protective Association of Saginaw.—R. P. Alden, Saginaw, Mich.
Minnesota State Forestry Association.—Wm. T. Cox. Sec'y, St. Anthony Park, Minn.
Nebraska Park & Forestry Association.—L. D. Stilson, York, Neb.
New Jersey State Forest Council.—Geo. M. Powell, Pres., Newfield. Wm. Purvis, Sec'y, Roscenhayn.
New York State Fish, Game & Forest League, —E. C. Gould, Sec'y, Seneca Falls.
North Carolina Forestry Association.—W. W. Ashe, Sec'y, Chapel Hill.
North Dakota State Sylvaton Society.—Miss Mary G. Buck, Sec'y, Lakota.
Ohio State Forestry Society.—Prof. W. R. Lazenby, Sec'y, Columbus. Ohio.
Oregon Forestry Association.—Martin W. Gorman, Sec'y, Portland, Oregon.
Pennsylvania Forestry Association.—Mrs. John P. Lundy, Sec'y, 245 South 18th Street, Philadelphia, Pa.
Pocono Protective Fire Association.—Thomas L. Hodge, Philadelphia, Pa.
Salt River Valley Users' Association.—Frank E. Parker, Phoenix, Ariz.
Sierra Club.—Prof. W. R. Dudley, Stanford University, California.
Society for the Protection of the New Hampshire Forests.—Joseph T. Walker, Sec'y, Concord, N. H.
Society of American Foresters.—Gifford Pinchot, Pres., Washington, D. C. Geo. B. Sudworth, Sec'y, Washington, D. C.
Tennessee Forest Association.—L. C. Glenn, Sec'y, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.
Utah Forestry Association.—A. C. Nelson, Sec'y, Salt Lake City.
Vermont Forestry Association.—Ernest Hitchcock, Sec'y, Pittsford, Vt.
Washington Forestry Association.—Edmond S. Meany, Sec'y, Seattle.
Wyoming State Forest Association.—W. C. Deming, Sec'y, Cheyenne.

STATE OFFICERS FOR FOREST WORK

Connecticut.—State Forester, Austin F. Hawes, New Haven.
Indiana.—State Board of Forestry: F. C. Carson, president, Michigan City; W. H. Freeman, secretary, Indianapolis.
Kansas.—Commissioner of Forestry, R. M. Wright, Dodge City.
Louisiana.—Commissioner of Forestry, A. W. Crandall *(ex officio)*, State Land Office, Baton Rouge.
Maine.—Land Agent and Forest Commissioner, Edgar E. Ring, Augusta.
Maryland.—State Geologic and Economic Survey, Dr. William B. Clark, State Geologist, Baltimore.
Massachusetts.—State Forester, Alfred Akerman, State House, Boston.
Michigan.—Forestry Commission, Hon. Chas. W. Garfield, president, Grand Rapids; Edwin A. Wildey, secretary, Lansing; State Forest Warden, Filibert Roth, Ann Arbor.
Minnesota.—Chief Fire Warden, Gen. C. C. Andrews, St. Paul. Forest Commissioner, Samuel C. Iverson, St. Paul. State Forestry Board, Sidney M. Owen, president, Minneapolis; Gen. C. C. Andrews, secretary, St. Paul.
New Hampshire.—Forest Commissioner, George H. Moses, secretary, Concord.
New Jersey.—Geological Survey, Henry B. Kummel, State Geologist, Trenton.
New York.—Forest, Fish and Game Commission, Hon. D. C. Middleton, commissioner, Watertown. Superintendent of State Forests, William F. Fox, Albany.
North Carolina.—Geological Survey, Prof. J. A. Holmes, State Geologist, Chapelhill.
Oregon.—Game and Forestry Warden, L. P. W. Quimby, Portland.
Pennsylvania.—Department of Forestry, Robert S. Conklin, commissioner, Harrisburg. State Forestry Reservation Commission, Isaac B. Brown, secretary.
West Virginia.—Geologic and Economic Survey, Dr. I. C. White, superintendent, Morgantown.
Wisconsin.—State Board of Forestry: John M. Olin, president, Madison; T. J. Cunningham, secretary, Chippewa Falls. Superintendent of State Forests, E. M. Griffith, Madison.

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON JUNE READINGS

SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL RUSSIA

1. 2,100,000 square miles. 2. The Greek Church. It has no common head like the Roman pope but is national in its organization. The Tzar is really the head of the Russian branch of the Church. There are many dissenting sects. 3. The siege and fall of Sebastopol. 4. Ten.

BERLIN CELEBRITIES

1. Adolph Harnack is a famous Protestant theologian. His important work has been done in the history of the ancient church. Otto Pfleiderer also is a theologian; he has written among other things "Paulinism" and "Philosophy of Religion on the Basis of Its History." 2. Helmholtz was a celebrated physiologist and physicist noted especially for his discoveries in optics and acoustics. Virchow was celebrated as an anatomist, physiologist, and anthropologist. Von Sybel was an historian. 3. Adolph von Menzel was born December 8, 1815. He became first known as an illustrator, particularly by reason of his illustrations of the life of Frederick the Great. He used the same subject for a number of historical paintings, famous among which is the "Evening Concert of Frederick the Great." Another noted picture is "The Forge." Menzel was raised to the nobility and granted the title of "Excellency." He was able to work up to the time of his death, Feb. 9, 1905. 4. Theodor Mommsen's most famous work is his "Roman History. 5. Amy Foy's book on German life is entitled "Music Study in Germany," (Macmillan, $1.25). 6. Euterpe; one of the Muses, a divinity of joy and pleasure and the patroness of flute-players. She favored primitive folk music more than polished, artistic music.

Chautauqua Assembly Calendar, 1905

Place	*Date*	*Recognition Day*
ALABAMA		
Talladega,	Aug. 3-17.	Aug. 12.
Manager, Wellington J. Vandiver, Talladega.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Wellington J. Vandiver, Talladega.		
CALIFORNIA		
Long Beach,	July 11-23.	
Manager, G. R. Crow, Los Angeles.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, G. R. Crow, Los Angeles.		
Pacific Grove,		July 18.
Manager, Chas. Filbin, Frisco.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. E. J. Dawson, San Jose.		
COLORADO		
Boulder,	July 4-Aug. 7.	
Manager, F. A. Boggess, Boulder, Colo.		
Palmer Lake,	July 10-Aug. 4.	Aug. 4.
Glen Park,		
Manager, Frank McDonough, E. & C. Bldg., Denver, Colo.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, C. F. McCarnine, McPhee Bldg., Denver, Colo.		
CONNECTICUT		
Forestville,	July 13-27.	July 20.
Manager, Daniel W. Howell, 411 Windson Ave., Hartford, Conn.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Geo. M. Brown.		
ILLINOIS		
Clinton,	Aug. 18-28.	
Manager E. B. Bentley, Clinton, Ill.		
Dixon,	July 30-Aug. 14.	
Manager, Hon. Adam Krape. Lena. Ill.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. W. H. Hartman, Foreston, Ill.		
Lithia Springs,	July 29-Aug. 15.	
Manager, Rev. Jasper L. Douthit, Lithia, Ill.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Winifred Douthit, Shelbyville.		
Moline,	July 13-23.	
Manager W. V. Richards, Moline, Ill.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. E. A. Shipley, es Moines, Ia.		
Ottawa,	Aug 18-26.	Aug. 19.
Manager, R. C. Jordan, Ottawa, Ill.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, W. J. Hoffman, Ottawa, Ill.		
Petersburg,	Aug. 9-24.	
Manager, Rev. Geo. H. Turner, Petersburg, Ill.		
Piasa,	July 20-Aug. 16.	July 31 or Aug. 14.
Manager, W. O. Paisley, Lincoln, Ill.		
Pontiac,	July 22-Aug. 6.	July 27.
Manager, A. C. Folsom.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. Alice H. Limerick, Winfield, Kansas.		

Rockford, Aug. 17-31. Aug. 24.
Manager, A. C. Folsom, Pontiac, Ill.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Alice H. Limerick, Winfield, Kansas.

INDIANA

Rome City, July 19-Aug. 11. Aug. 4.
Manager, Rev. J. F. Snyder, La Grange, Ind.
Secretary, Katherine Harper, Goshen, Ind.
Remington, Aug. 12-27. Aug. 17.
Manager, Robert Parker, Remington.
Winona Lake, July 5-Sept. 1.
Manager, Sol C. Dickey, 118 Monument Pl., Indianapolis, Ind.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Emma Anderson, 118 Monument Pl., Indianapolis, Ind.

IOWA

Allerton, August 16-23.
Manager. John A. Shannon, Allerton, Ia.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Inez F. Kelso, Humeston, Ia.
Centerville, Aug. 4-13.
Manager, J. M. Beck, Centerville, Ia.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Inez F. Kelso, Humeston, Ia.
Marshalltown, Aug. 12-20.
Manager, Elijah Brown Jones, Marshalltown. Ia.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Edna Fullerton, Marshalltown.
Waterloo, July 11-Aug. 2. July 20.
Manager, Rev. Frank L. Loveland, Waterloo, Ia.

KANSAS

Beloit, July 31-Aug. 6.
Manager, T. H. J. Taggart, Concordia, Kansas.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. A. E. Shipley, 1328 E. 13th St., Des Moines, Ia.
Cawker City, Aug. 3-13.
Manager, E. L. Huckell, Cawker City.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Hamilton, Wichita, Kansas.
Concordia, July 28- Aug. 6.
Manager, J. C. Porter, Jewell City, Kansas.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. A. E. Shipley, Des Moines, Ia.
Lincoln Park, Aug. 3-13.
Manager, E. L. Huckell, Cawker City, Kansas.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Hamilton, Wichita, Kas.
Ottawa, July 3-14. July 13.
Manager, C. S. Nusbaum, Cherryvale, Kansas.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Alma F. Piatt, Wichita, Kansas.
Wathena, Aug. 5-13. Aug. 11.
Manager, A. W. Themanson, Wathena, Kansas.
C. L. S. C. Representative, E. Jeanette Zimmerman.
Winfield, June 20-30. June 26.
Manager, M. L. Wortman, Winfield, Kans.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Alma F. Piatt.

KENTUCKY

Lexington, June 28-July 8.
Manager Dr. W. L. Davidson.
Owensboro, Aug. 2-17. Aug. 14.
Manager, W. G. Archer, Owensboro, Ky.

MAINE

Ocean Park, July 20-Aug. 31. Aug. 10.
Manager, Rev. W. K. Twort, 12 Reservoir St., Lawrence, Mass.

MARYLAND

Mountain Lake Park, Aug. 3-29.
Manager, Dr. W. L. Davidson, 1711 Grant St., Washington, D. C.
Washington Grove. July 4-Sept. 1. Aug 17.
Manager, Rev. W. K. Smith, Room 382, Navy Dept., Washington, D. C.

MASSACHUSETTS

Northampton. July 11-21.
Manager, Dr. W. L. Davidson, 1711 Grant St., Washington, D. C.

MISSOURI

Carthage, July 3-12.
Manager, H. J. Fitzer, Carthage.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. Alma F. Piatt.
Pertle Springs, Aug. 10-18.
Manager A. C. Stewart. 401 N. 4th St., St. Louis, Mo.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. A. E. Shipley, 1328 E. 13th St., Des Moines, Ia.

NEBRASKA

Beatrice. July 6-18.
Manager, Fuller Swift, Des Moines, Ia.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Julia Fuller, Beatrice, Neb.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Hedding, Aug. 7-26.
Manager, Rev. E. E. Dorion, Franklin Falls, N. H.

NEW YORK

Chautauqua, June 29-Aug. 27. Aug. 16.
Manager, Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, N. Y.

OHIO

Bethesda, Aug. 2-16. Aug. 9.
Manager, Rev. M. J. Slutz, Barnesville, O.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. P. U. Hawkins, Barnesville, O.
Celena, July 21-31.
Manager and C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. Milton W. Br wn, Westwood, Cincinnati, O.
Delaware, Aug. 4-14. Aug. 14.
Manager, Rev. Milton W. Brown, Westwood, Cincinnati, O.
Defiance, Aug. 3-13.
Manager, Rev. A. P. Murphy, Defiance.
Lima, July 21-31.
Manager and C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. Milton W. Brown, Westwood, Cincinnati, O.
Wellston, Aug. 11-21.
Manager and C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. Milton W. Brown, Westwood, Cincinnati, O.

OKLAHOMA

Kingfisher, June 1-11.
Manager, J. H. Parker, Kingfisher.
Oklahoma, June 15-22.
Manager, E. A. Tinkham, Oklahoma City, Okla.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. A. H. Limerick, Winfield, Kansas.

PENNSYLVANIA

Mt. Gretna, July 3-Aug. 4.
Manager, N. C. Schaefer, Harrisburg.
C. L. S. C. Representative, L. E. McGinnis, Steelton, Pa.
Naomi Pines, July 10-Aug. 5.
Manager, G. P. Eckles.
C. L. S. C. Representative, J. H. Morgan, Ph. D., Carlisle.
Ridgeview Park, July 28-Aug. 8. Aug. 4.
Manager, W. C. Weaver, Homestead, Pa.
C. L. S. C. Representative, W. C. Weaver, Homestead, Pa.

SOUTH DAKOTA

Big Stone, June 29-July 10. July 7.
Manager, S. R. Golden, Big Stone, S. D.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. Etta Vosburgh, Milbank, S. D.
Madison, June 24-July 1.
Manager, H. P. Smith, Madison, S. D.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. Hugh Robinson, Madison.

TENNESSEE

Monteagle, July 3-Aug. 25. July 20.
Manager, M. B. Pilcher, Nashville, Tenn.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Effie Scoville, Nashville, Tenn.

VIRGINIA

Shenandoah Valley, Aug. 4-16. Aug. 12.
Manager, A. P. Funkhouser, Harrisonburg.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Jessie Funkhouser, Harrisonburg.

WEST VIRGINIA

Moundsville, Aug. 1-10. Aug. 5.
Manager, C. B. Graham, 623 Main St., Wheeling, W. Va.
C. L. S. C. Representative, B. B. Evans, Huntington, W. Va.

WISCONSIN

Chetek, July 11-21.
Manager, J. W. Bell, Chetek, Wisconsin.
C. L. S. C. Representative, E. D. Claypool, Fayette, Ia.
Marinette, July 13-25. July 21.
Manager, George W. Hanley, Marinette, Wis.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Carrie L. Grout, Rockford, Ill.
Monona Lake (Madison), July 26-Aug. 5. Aug. 3.
Manager, Jas. E. Mosely, Madison, Wis.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Maria F. Hanchet, Madison, Wis.
Waupaca, Aug. 8-22.
Manager, H. A. Larson, Waupaca.

THROUGH this knothole, the work of the "TREE BUTCHER," I have the painful duty of notifying you that not ten per cent. of our trees are sound! I beg to suggest that you read the article in this number, on "The Tree Butcher." Also, that it will be my privilege and pleasure to present my stereopticon lecture at Chautauqua, on July 12th. I shall use about 150 "slides," all made of actual photographs of trees as I have found them. A life's work is presented in this one lecture. Also, I offer to give this lecture one hundred and fifty times from October 1st, '05, to May 1st, '06. All who wish the lecture, write me at Kent, O., for terms, which will be low.

Before hearing the lecture on July 12th, at Chautauqua, if you were to read my new book for children, entitled, "Uncle John's Talks About Trees," you will derive a greater benefit from the lecture. Price of this new book, 50 cents by mail, from the above address.

HARRISBURG, PA., January 9, 1905.

MR. JOHN DAVEY:

I consider your work with trees and your lecture about the abuses to which they are subject as of the utmost value in arousing any community to a sense of its own responsibilities, opportunities and dangers. The way in which you present the matter and the pictures with which you enforce your statements are both unique. I wish that ten thousand communities in the United States might hear this lecture, for it would mean the salvation of a million trees.

Yours truly,

J. HORACE MCFARLAND,

President American Civic Association.

"I have read the book from cover to cover, and I pronounce it the most practical treatise on the care of trees I have ever seen. I wish it could be placed in the hands of every tree lover, and every one who has the care of trees in our streets should possess a copy."

CHAS. M. LORING,

President of the Minnesota State Forestry Association.

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The CHAUTAUQUAN

A Magazine of Things Worth While

THE CHAUTAUQUA PRESS CHAUTAUQUA, NEW YOR

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

A Monthly Magazine of Things Worth While

Official Publication of Chautauqua Institution

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THE CHAUTAUQUA PRESS

FRANK CHAPIN BRAY, Editor.

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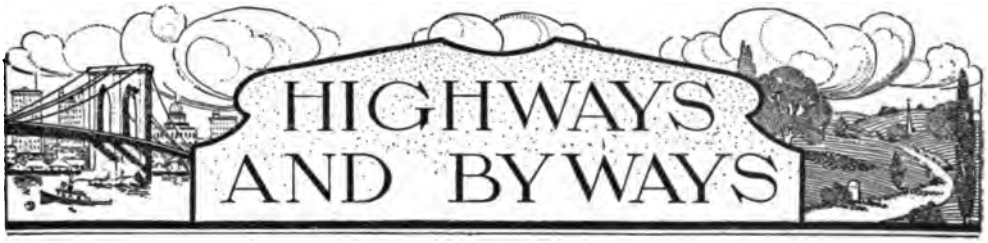


IT is no more just or reasonable to indict a city than it is to indict a whole nation. Philadelphia has been described as "corrupt but contented," and no doubt many have hastily concluded that her people were indifferent to official rascality and treachery.

Recent events have exploded that theory. The real trouble with Philadelphia is political. One party has so overwhelming a preponderance, and the independent vote is so powerless, that the ordinary motives and safeguards which prevent abuse of official power and opportunity in other municipalities, or tend to minimize it, fail of effect. Misapplied partisanship is the curse of Philadelphia politics and civic life.

The storm over the "gas steal," as the projected lease of the city's gas works was universally called, shows that when Philadelphia is aroused even the appeal to partisan loyalty is impotent and vain. The proposed lease was an outrageous attempt to pawn for a period of 75 years the city's best asset, her gas works. It is now operated under a lease by a private company, on terms apparently fair and profitable to both contracting parties, and the lease does not expire until 1928. If, however, the city's finances permitted it, she could in 1908 take over the works by paying for the improvements the company has made. But the city is poor and at the limit of her borrowing power, and in supposed need, moreover, of $25,000,000 for various permanent betterments, and the machine in control of the Republican "organization" and of the city legislature (a bicameral body) proposed to make a 75-year lease with the company on the basis of a dollar gas for the present generation and 90-cent gas for the next two generations. For this privilege, the company was to make the city a lump payment of $25,000,000 though its value was estimated at several times that amount.

The proposal provoked general indignation. The councils were forced to grant a delay and invite competitive bids, but the ordinance authorizing the lease was finally passed by a decisive majority—so decisive, in fact, that even the mayor's veto, it was apparent, would not defeat the purpose of the "grabbers" and their political tools in the local government. The local boss controlled the councils and the executive departments of the city, and the mayor, it was supposed, would do his bidding having been elected by and through the machine, and even if the popular revolt should force the mayor to disapprove the ordinance, it would be easy to override his veto. The machine "had the votes" and was defiant and confident.

But it reckoned without the irresistible influence of public opinion. The mayor, John Weaver, a "party man," who had been repeatedly denounced by reformers and prayed for on the streets and in the churches, vigorously espoused the cause of the city. He turned upon the machine and declared war upon it, dismissing its favorites from executive positions, depriving it of spoils and the "cohesive power of plunder," and threatening an appeal against the grab to the courts.

The people were not idle. They held

mass meetings, visited the councilmen, ostracised those of the latter who failed to make a definite promise to stand with the mayor, planned imposing demonstrations and processions. The "gangsters" resisted the forces of honesty for a few days and then surrendered. The gas company withdrew its offer for the lease, and the boss bowed to the inevitable.

THE LATE ALBION W. TOURGEE
Jurist and Novelist.

The people of Philadelphia have prevented a particularly audacious steal but the victory cannot be regarded as permanent. Long, steady and hard work alone will produce lasting results. The people cannot always organize political revolutions, but they can discard partisanship in local affairs and vote for men of character and integrity. Independence is now the watchword in municipal politics, and Philadelphia has heard the cry.

Progressive Legislation in States

The adjournment of the state legislatures prompts a review of the measures enacted by them in the interest of the public. We have commented on the radicalism of the various inaugural messages of the new executives and on the trend of public opinion in the leading states. Now that the legislatures have done their work for the year, what is the net result of their labors?

In New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and some other states the people have little occasion for gratitude or satisfaction. The best the press of each of these states could say was that the legislature "might have been worse." Many of the bills were of the "grab" variety, and talk of corruption and bribery was abundant in connection with several of them. In Illinois the verdict was more favorable, finding expression in the phrase, "It might have been better." This would apply to Missouri, where Gov. Folk's strenuous efforts to secure an effective anti-bribery act proved vain, but where some progressive legislation was enacted in spite of strong opposition. But perhaps the best record was made by the legislature of Wisconsin, thanks to Gov. La Follette's energy and persistence. It enacted a good direct-primary act and an important act for the control of railroads and the regulation of rates. The latter act gives the state railroad commission (a body appointed by the governor) the power which President Roosevelt would have Congress confer, with regard to interstate commerce, on the national commerce commission.

The Wisconsin act, though not as strong as Governor LaFollette would have made it, enables the commission not only to set aside any rate as excessive and unreasonable, but to prescribe a substitute rate. A rate once fixed and published cannot be changed without ten days' notice to the commission. In one important respect, however, the Wisconsin act falls short of the measure proposed by the President for the United States. It provides that the rate fixed by the commission shall not go into effect where an appeal has been taken from its order by the carrier. The federal legislation suggested contemplates the immediate enforcement of the substitute rate, an appeal not to act as a stay.

Returning to the other states above referred to, Illinois has adopted a direct primary law (which, however, does not apply to Chicago) and a good merit system applicable to all charitable institutions of the state. New York has passed some bills crushing greedy and oppressive public-service corporations, and even New Jersey, described as the most corporation-

ridden state in the Union, the home of piratical trusts preying upon the other states, has enacted a law providing for an inquiry into the whole question of public franchises, the propriety of making long-term grants and the policies of sister-states in the matter of franchise taxation and regulation.

A review of the legislative record as a whole shows that the great issue everywhere is the protection of the people from the abuses of corporate monopoly, especially in the field of public utilities. Political reforms, such as direct nominations, the referendum, the recall, etc., are regarded as means to that supreme end. The municipal ownership movement is part of this larger anti-monopoly movement. The monopolies are everywhere in politics, controlling legislation or seeking to do so, corrupting representatives and employing hosts of personal lobbyists. In this connection it should be stated that the executives of Ohio, Wisconsin and Missouri have recommended strong statutes to prohibit personal or professional lobbying and make it a criminal offence.

The "Rate" Question Still Paramount

Whether or not Congress will be convened in extraordinary session next fall to deal with the complex question of railroad control and regulation, certain it is that since the adjournment of the last congress there has been no indication of any decline in the public interest therein. Those who hoped the question would sink into obscurity or relative insignificance reckoned without the strenuous activity of the national administration and the growing appreciation of the importance of such legislation as the President advocates. The "rate" problem has remained paramount. Even tariff revision is generally viewed as distinctly secondary in comparison.

The senate committee on interstate commerce has held a series of hearings at which many prominent railroad men, attorneys supposed to be thoroughly familiar with the law of the subject, shippers and public men discussed the pros and cons of the proposed rate legislation. It cannot be said that the public stock of knowledge has been materially increased as a result of these hearings. They accentuated, however, the fact that the railroad interests were practically a unit in opposition to the President's recommendation as imperfectly embodied in the Esch-Townsend bill, which will doubtless be reintroduced in the next congress.

MAYOR WEAVER OF PHILADELPHIA
Who Thwarted the Attempted Gas Steal.

The lines of argument urged by the representatives of these great interests were as follows: In the first place, rate fixing is a legislative not a judicial or administrative duty, and, admitting that Congress has the power to fix rates for all interstate commerce traffic, it must itself exercise this power; that is, it cannot delegate such exercise either to a court of any kind or to any administrative body. Now, Congress cannot possibly undertake so tremendous a task as rate fixing. The railroads employ thousands of experts to do this work—men of varied and practical experience who study conditions as to traffic, industry and markets and know how to take a thousand and one things into account. Congress, without the time, knowledge, experience or other requisite qualifications for the function, would be staggered by it and, if it attempted anything at all, would be sure to blunder, flounder and fumble, with disastrous results.

In the second place—the argument was

—there is no need whatever for legislation empowering any governmental agency to fix maximum rates. because there is *no rate problem* in the United States. Rates here are very low,so low as to excite the wonder of the world, and complaints of unreasonable rates are so exceptional as to be absolutely negligible. What shippers and the public have complained of, and with justice, is discrimination. This evil has assumed various forms—rebates, direct and indirect, differentials to certain ports and localities, unfair distinctions in classification of commodities, etc. Let the law against preferences and discriminations be strictly applied; let it be strengthened, if necessary, and extended to all private car lines; let the use of the nation's highways be assured to all on equal terms, and the rate question will settle itself.

REV. JAMES D. MOFFAT
Moderator Presbyterian General Assembly.

The case of the advocates of legislation giving the commerce commission, or some other body, the power to prescribe reasonable rates (not in the first place, but in any controversy in which, after a proper inquiry the rate charged has been adjudged unreasonable) rests upon the fundamental contention that certain injurious forms of discrimination—particularly, discrimination against localities and classes of commodities—cannot be eradicated in its absence. This is the repeatedly expressed view of the commission. In several important cases its orders have been overruled by the courts on the ground that they involved the fixing of rates for future observance, though the essential object was to do away with unjust and fla- discrimination.

With regard to the alleged practical difficulties, it is affirmed by the advocates of rate legislation that, in point of fact, the commission would be an admirable arbiter. Untrammeled by pecuniary and personal interests, it could prescribe equitable rates in any litigated case and thus prevent retaliation, rate wars and demoralization.

But, apart from all such considerations, President Roosevelt, Secretary Taft and others have appealed to first principles of American liberty and American government. Since railroads are monopolies, and since competition among systems has been largely eliminated through community of interest and actual consolidation, the economic destinies, the welfare and prosperity of the nation, are in the hands and at the mercy of a few gigantic corporations, if not a few individuals. And industrial oligarchies, or industrial despotism, will be just as menacing and intolerable as political oligarchy or despotism. The power to control and regulate the railroads must exist somewhere; it may be open to abuse, like any other power (that of taxation, for example), but it must exist, and where shall it be lodged if not in an agency of Congress, which alone is charged with the regulation of interstate commerce?

The constitutional aspects of the question were carefully considered by Attorney-General Moody and his conclusions were embodied in a formal opinion presented to the Senate committee. In brief, they are as follows:

1. Congress has the power to regulate, control and fix maximum rates for interstate commerce precisely as the states have the power to fix such rates for passenger and freight traffic within state boundaries.

2. The power cannot be delegated to the Judicial Department, rate-fixing being essentially a legislative function.

3. All that the judiciary can do in rate matters, on appeal, is to investigate the reasonableness of laws or orders pre-

scribing rates, and set aside such as are in effect confiscatory or ruinous.

4. Congress cannot delegate to any administrative body the power to establish standards and maxima. This it must do itself, leaving detail and particular applications only to its agent, a commission or some other body.

5. Congress, in fixing rates, is not obliged to adhere to a distance basis, but may allow reasonable differentials to some places and cities over others, provided such differentials are dictated by considerations of justice and reason.

The last proposition has been disputed by able lawyers, who argue that differentials of any sort are barred by the constitutional prohibition of *preferences* to some ports over others. If this be sound, congressional rate legislation is supposed to be practically impossible, for differentials are declared by railroad men to be absolutely necessary to the normal development of the country. The other four propositions have also been challenged, but with less vigor and confidence.

On the whole, the discussion, though it has been of great value, has not converted any adherents of either side to the other. A stubborn fight is in prospect, with the Senate as the storm center.

A Probable Tariff War With Germany

Although the question of tariff revision has been anything but prominent of late, there is a strong probability of its revival. A tariff war between Germany and the United States would certainly have that effect, and such a war is by no means unlikely.

The new German tariff will go into effect next March. It is, as we have shown on another occasion, an illiberal, "agrarian" tariff, one that has been denounced by merchants and manufacturers of the Teutonic empire as a measure to check and discourage foreign commerce. It increases duties on grain and many other classes of commodities in the interest of agriculture.

It is a "double tariff." One set of schedules and rates is "autonomous;" that is, it applies of its own force to all countries that have no *special* arrangements with Germany. The other set is "conventional," that is, it is to be extended only to such countries as see fit to enter into commercial treaties with Germany and offer equivalent, reciprocal concessions or reductions of rates.

Now, seven countries, including Russia and Austro-Hungary, have concluded special reciprocity treaties with Germany, and the new treaty will not affect them. The United States has not concluded, and, in view of the Senate's determined opposition to reciprocity, is not likely to conclude, a reciprocity treaty; and the question has arisen what Germany will do with regard to our goods. At present we enjoy the advantage of the "most favored nation" clauses and have access to the markets of the German empire on the same terms that any other country commands. But will Germany give us gratis, as it were, the concessions the seven countries above alluded to have obtained by means of reciprocity treaties? What would be the value of reciprocity to those countries in that event?

Accordingly, it is currently reported that the present arrangement with us will be terminated by Germany and that next March (unless we have by that time negotiated a new treaty on a reciprocity basis) the higher duties of the "autonomous" tariff will be levied on an export to her markets. These reports are quasi-official, but they have aroused much apprehension in the United States. For next to England, Germany is our best customer, our exports to the latter for the fiscal year 1904 being valued at $222,400,000.

There are those who hold, with doubtful consistency, that the imposition by Germany of the higher or autonomous duties on our goods would constitute discrimination, and that retaliation would be justi-

fiable in that event. Where is the discrimination in a case in which we can obtain the privileges that have been granted to Russia, Austria, Belgium, and other countries by paying the same price—that is, negotiating a reciprocity convention similar to those they have severally negotiated? What Germany has done does not differ in principle from what the reciprocity section of the Dingley act authorizes our government to do, and from what the Kasson treaties (killed by the Senate) actually attempted to do. A protective tariff qualified by reciprocity bargains has for years been the policy of the Republican party, and no one has championed it more impressively than did Mr. McKinley in his Buffalo speech.

CHARLES J. BONAPARTE
Who succeeds Paul Morton as Secretary of Navy.

Secretary Shaw and Senator Lodge are represented as favoring a double tariff for the United States. The suggestion is not new, but the tariff revisionists ask whether the minimum tariff would be as high as the present one or materially lower, as it ought to be, in their opinion. Our rates are higher than the autonomous rates of the new German tariff, and to raise them still further would be a singular means of avoiding a tariff war

Anti-Alien Legislation in England

Last year the Balfour government introduced in the House of Commons a bill for the restriction of immigration and the prevention of further congestion of overpopulated areas. It was opposed by the liberals and but half heartedly supported by the ministerialists; it died of in-

This year there is a bill dealing with the same question, and showing more careful study of the facts and conditions of the situation. No "closed areas" are provided for, and therefore such aliens as shall be admitted under it will be free to settle anywhere. But among the classes of aliens to be excluded from the country by the immigration boards at the various ports are destitute persons without visible means or reasonable prospects of support or of remunerative employment. Under such a clause not only unskilled, but highly skilled workmen without capital or definite promise of work, could be prevented from landing. Were such a provision applied in the United States, hundreds of thousands of immigrants could be excluded, as most of those who are now arriving in this country from Italy, Russia, Austro-Hungary, Roumania and other countries have no money and no certain prospect of employment.

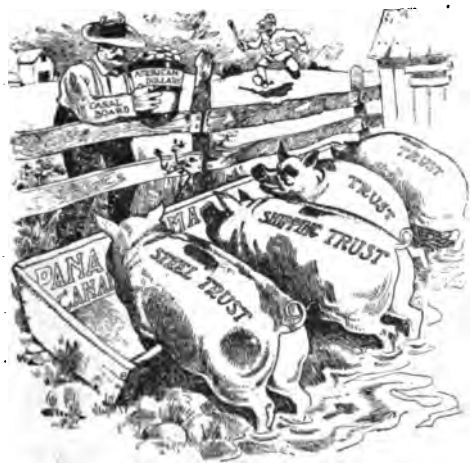
But while there is undoubtedly an American immigration problem, owing to the numbers and quality of the new arrivals (this year the total may exceed 1,000,000), in Great Britain it is apparently a debatable question, whether immigration is a plus or a minus quantity. According to official figures, only about 8,000 aliens remained in Great Britain in the year 1903; the other emigrants passed on to the United States, Canada, etc. Many of the "transmigrants" are not registered as such and swell the immigration figures of the country. Last year, also according to governmental data, about 50,000 immigrants failed to declare their intention to proceed further, but this by no means signifies that all of these remained in the country. Sir Charles Dilke and other Liberals pronounce the bill wholly gratuitous and unnecessary, as England receives fewer aliens than almost any other important country in the world, and since she constantly loses population by emigration, to the United States, Canada, South America and Australia. Irish

emigration has been particularly heavy of late, and South Africa has been attracting large numbers of British workmen.

The bill will not be strenuously opposed, however, because labor favors it and a general election is impending. The followers of Mr. Chamberlain frankly declare that the exclusion of destitute labor is a step toward the goal—full protection and the exclusion of the products made by cheap and semi-pauper labor in other countries. The army of the unemployed is growing in England and demanding measures of permanent relief, and this, not unnaturally, is used as an argument for the alien bill.

The Scottish Church Dispute

Several months ago we discussed in these pages the unique case of the Scottish Free Church versus the United Free Church, a case which the House of Lords, on strictly legal and technical grounds had decided in favor of the "Wee Kirkers," so called because of the numerical weakness of their denomination. As a result of this decision, the twenty-four ministers and handful of worshipers of the Free Church became entitled to the whole of the property of the Free Church of Scotland, valued at about $55,000,000, which included three important colleges,



SUCH APPETITES !

Teddy—"Look out there! Don't overfeed 'em."

—*Fom the Chicago Daily News.*

Assembly Hall, all the missions of the church abroad and the eleven hundred churches and manses in Scotland. The principal ground of the decision was that the minority that had opposed the union of the Free Church with the United Presbyterian Church was true to the traditions and tenets of the church and that all the gifts and bequests to the Free Church must be deemed to have been made with the implied condition that there should be no departure from those tenets and traditions.

LATE MARY A. LIVERMORE
Noted Reform Leader.

There was great dissatisfaction with the decision, not only in Scotland, but in England as well. It was declared to be narrow and unjust and contrary to the best interests of religion. The Free Church could use but a very small portion of the buildings, property and assets of the United Free Church, as it had no followers to fill the churches, missions or colleges, while the larger body, with all the traditions and influences of a great church, was threatened with paralysis and spoliation.

Efforts at an amicable adjustment of the controversy were made by both sides, but without success or promise of success. Finally a royal commission was appointed to inquire into the equities of the case and make suitable recommendations to Parliament. In Great Britain, it should be borne in mind, there is no restriction on legislation, no constitutional prohibition of action impairing the obligation of contracts or depriving persons of property without due process of law. Parliament is supreme and no court can review or annul its laws.

The commission has made its report, and it advises a practical reversal of the judgment of the House of Lords sitting as the highest appellate court. It recommends that the victorious contestant be required to hand over to the defeated one all the property it cannot itself adequately administer—that is, the bulk of it—and accept a liberal provision for its own actual needs and future development. Legislation will be necessary to give effect to this finding, but no one doubts that Parliament will enact it. The House of Lords, as a legislative body, will therefore vote to set aside the judgment of the House of Lords sitting as a high and final court of justice. The situation is a remarkable one.

VICE-ADMIRAL ROJESTVENSKY
Who commanded the Russian Baltic Fleet.

Reform Victories in Russia

The news from the Russian capital in relation to the internal questions of the empire has not been uniformly favorable and encouraging. Some of the actions and measures of the government have been distinctly reactionary in tendency and effect, and the appointment of typical and notorious bureaucrats of the Plehve school to important positions on the various "commissions" charged with formulating the reform laws sanctioned by the Tzar (at least a dozen commissions are now sitting and toiling painfully without much apparent success) has been viewed as a bad sign. Nevertheless, there is evidence of the government's intention to adhere to the reform policy announced in the rescript concerning the creation of an elective national assembly to participate, in some way, in legislation and the settlement of the tremendous problems confronting Russia.

In the first place a long step has been taken toward true religious freedom—the freedom of worship, conscience and active propaganda. The sect of the "Old Believers" and other unorthodox bodies, numbering millions, are no longer to be persecuted, banished, deprived of civil rights and, in general, treated as enemies of church and state. They are to have the same rights as the orthodox subjects, including that of missionary activity. Secession from the state church, on the other hand, will cease to be punished as a crime. Alien faiths are to enjoy greater freedom and security, and many disadvantages long borne by Roman Catholics, Mohammedans and others have been removed, though, for reasons not explained, the Jews and Armenians of Russia have been excluded from these blessings. In all probability, however, the question as to the rights and status of these races will be referred to the national assembly that is shortly to be convened. It should be added that Russia has never interfered, in a direct way, with the freedom of worship of alien faiths; only those who, while born into the official religion, sought to disregard its tenets and forms, were in danger of serious persecution. What Russia has steadfastly denied to other religions is the right to proselytize.

Two other noteworthy series of measures have to be recorded. One has restored some of the former privileges of Finland; the other amounts to a reversal of the policy of merciless Russification of Poland and Baltic provinces. The latter series of concessions, indeed, has been hailed in Europe as the most unmistakable indication of the Tzar's determination to adopt definitely a comprehensive policy of pacification by means of conciliation, emancipation and abrogation of tyrannical and galling restrictions.

So far as Russian Poland is concerned, the Tzar's rescript of May is almost sweeping and revolutionary. The assem-

blies of nobles are to be restored; the Polish language is to be taught in the primary and secondary schools of any city or town which has a majority of Polish inhabitants; and the Poles are to be permitted to acquire landed property and industrial premises in many ways hitherto prohibited. The alienation of Polish estates to Russian proprietors has been one of the crying evils and flagrant iniquities of the Russification program.

There is a national movement throughout Poland (German and Austrian as well as Russian), but it is to be distinguished from the insurrection movement. The re-establishment of Poland as an independent or even quasi-independent kingdom is still the dream of her poets and best writers. All her moderate practical representatives, however, ask nothing but political and economic reform along the lines of the Russian constitutional movement and favor coöperation with the liberals of Russia proper.

Russia's Overwhelming Naval Defeat and After

The war with Japan has been, for Russia, an unbroken series of reverses, losses and humiliating defeats. But even the fall of Port Arthur and the hasty, costly flight from Mukden appear small matters beside the crushing, almost unparalleled disaster which overwhelmed her when Admiral Togo met the combined Baltic fleet under Rojestvensky in the Korea Strait and literally destroyed it. The details are by this time known to every reader of the daily newspapers. There is not a grain of comfort in the bitter, tragic story for the Russian government. The Rojestvensky - Nebogatoff fleet was a powerful one, on paper more formidable than that of Admiral Togo. It included more battleships of the first class, though not so many fast cruisers. When the engagement was over all of the Russian battleships were lost—sunk, captured or hopelessly disabled—and of the cruisers and other craft but few escaped. The loss to the Japs was insignificant—a fact which rendered the result all the more humiliating to Russia.

ADMIRAL TOGO
Japan's Victorious Naval Commander.

St. Petersburg was stunned and stupefied by the disaster. All hope of regaining command of the sea, of cutting off the Japanese army in Korea and Manchuria from its base of supplies, of inflicting injury upon Japanese ports and commerce, of "turning the tables" on the conqueror and forcing peace on terms satisfactory to Russia were dashed. What next?

"Peace" was the answer of liberal Russia as well as of Europe. Peace and reform, reorganization, reconstruction at home. The view of progressive Russians is that it is the autocratic and bureaucratic system that was so overwhelmingly beaten in the Korean Strait, as it had been at Port Arthur and Mukden, and that the disgrace is purely governmental, and not at all national. Rojestvensky, they say, had the ships and the guns, but he did not possess the skill, the unity, the determination, the morale, the discipline, the efficiency, upon

ANOTHER PROPOSED CHINESE EXCLUSION ACT
—From the Cleveland Plain Dealer.

which success now depends. The government's reactionary policy has kept the people of Russia in ignorance, misery, degradation; it has discouraged education and light and enterprise, and it reaped the fruits of that barbarous, brutal and stupid policy in the Manchurian war.

BARON ROSEN

New Russian Ambassador to the United States.

So hated and distrusted is the government in the liberal circles that Rojestvensky's defeat seems actually to have been welcomed by them. They had feared the effect of a victory on the internal situation. The war party and the Bourbon reactionaries would undoubtedly have persuaded the Tzar to withdraw, emasculate or nullify his reforms. Even such losses as their country has sustained, they hold, are not too dear a price to pay for freedom, constitutional government and progress. In no other way could the grand ducal clique be compelled to give up some of its privileges and power, for nothing else would so utterly have shattered the prestige and pretensions of the autocracy.

At this writing the fateful question of peace *vs.* continuance of the war is still unanswered in Russia, though thanks to President Roosevelt, the first step toward peace has been taken. The war clique in the court circles is dying hard, and though all but two of the Tzar's ministers and most of the newspapers demand peace on any terms now obtainable, the outlook is uncertain. The Tzar feels that he cannot sign a humiliating peace treaty, yet all hope of victory on land, of rehabilitation, has practically been abandoned. General Linevitch himself, the commander of the armies in the field, is reported to have earnestly recommended peace, the troops being disheartened, sullen and rebellious. Russia's credit, too, appears to be exhausted, the last loan having been floated with much difficulty. She will have to pay a heavy indemnity, and her French creditors necessarily keep that fact in view. The situation is indeed desperate. This accounts for the Tzar's willingness to ascertain Japan's terms. The President has brought the belligerents together; whether they will come to an agreement is doubtful. Much will depend on Japan's attitude, and the amount of the indemnity she will claim, on the guarantees she will exact and so on. Russia realizes her plight, but she is not ready for peace on *any* terms.

It is likely that the question will be referred to the zemsky sobor (national assembly) the Tzar may be compelled to summon in great haste. That assembly will represent the various classes and castes of the empire, though it will not be elected by universal suffrage. It may mean the beginning of truly representative government, the end of absolutism and despotism.

What the Paragraphers Say

First we had the Strenuous Life, then came the Simple Life, now we have the Equitable Life.—*Life.*

LOOKING FORWARD.—"Senator," he asked, "have you really any fixed convictions."

"Not just now," he replied, "but I expect to have one or two shortly after the beginning of the next session."—*Chicago Record-Herald.*

When they rebury the remains of John Paul Jones, we hope none of the orators of the occasion will find it necessary to recall the fact that he was once an officer in the Russian army.—*Washington Post.*

ANNOYANCES.—"No malaria around here?" said the man with the tourist cap.

"Nope," answered Farmer Corntossel.

"Nor mosquitoes?"

"Nope."

"You must have some of the annoyances of country life."

"Yep."

"What are they?"

"Summer boarders. But we have to put up with 'em."

RUINS OF A ROMAN PALACE, TREVES

The Ancient City of Treves

By N. Hudson Moore

THE wanderer through Europe who is not only willing but eager to escape from well-worn paths and those who travel on them, finds in the valley of the Moselle and that debatable land marking the boundaries of France and Germany, a haven of repose.

In this happy valley he still encounters a cheerful peasantry absorbed in the tilling of their vineyards, and quite ignorant of the profits to be reaped from the "tourist crop." In dress, in manners, and in their daily life these people are almost as primitive as were their ancestors centuries ago, and here one may sink the bustle and rush of the present day and dwell in an atmosphere of remoteness and antiquity as strange as it is delightful.

The Rhine with its toy castles, the Loire with its chateaux, have been ceaselessly sung and praised in poetry and prose. But the Moselle, beloved of every dweller within a day's walk of its pleasant shores, with its countless legends, with its sparkling Mosellewein, the lovely winding Moselle, lives chiefly in a glorious past.

Who that has sailed down this enchanting river from Coblenz will ever forget the delight of that short day and a half? Who will ever again expect to see such picturesque groups of washerwomen as beat and pat piles of snowy linen on every flat stone, looking as if they were just waiting the call-bell before stepping on the stage to sing

"I'm a merry little Moselle maid."

or some such ditty?

The Moselle too is not without its ruined castles; nearly every other hill is crowned with picturesque ruins; but the pearl of the river is Trèves, chiefly known to the antiquary and the pilgrim.

Leaving the modern and busy city of Coblenz, and arriving at the ancient stronghold of Trèves, in a day and a half we fairly plunge into a survival of the past so unexpected and so bewildering

THE PORTA NIGRA, TREVES

that at first it seems scarcely credible.

We need not go back to the tradition that Trebeta, stepson of Semiramis, led his vassals from Babylon to the fertile region beyond the Rhine lying between Bingen and the Ahr. We can scarcely grasp the idea that here at Trèves stood their chief city, a center of art and a high degree of civilization, thirteen centuries before the hardy Romulus and Remus founded Rome. The powerful race of the Treverii, barbarians and warriors, stained the lovely valley of the Moselle with blood feuds. Here in quiet reposeful Trèves in later times, when the barbarian stronghold had disappeared and imperial Treverorum the city of Roman emperors had arisen, were enacted other bloody scenes, under the rule of the terrible Constantine.

At Trèves the Christian era does not seem the remote and almost fabled time that it does in new lands. St. Mathew lies buried in the lovely old church of St. Matthias, which has stood in its present form since the eleventh century. Near the richly decorated church of St. Paulin stands an ancient, time-worn cross, marking the spot of a Christian martyrdom so great that the blood of the victims ran into the Moselle, crimsoning for miles its slowly flowing waters.

The Gauls who first settled Trèves were conquered by Cæsar, B. C. 56. The town of imperial Trèves was founded by Claudius, step-father of the cruel Nero. It rose in importance and magnificence and became during the fourth century the residence of the Roman emperors. These splendid builders have left in this city beyond the Rhine, monuments of their greatness, as fine as those held by Rome herself. The first in importance is the Porta Nigra, or Porta Martis, or Simeonsthor as it is variously called, which was built partly as a fortified city gate, and partly as a hall of justice, it is supposed from its size.

It is quite impossible to describe the feeling the first sight of this great black building stirs within you. To say the towers are ninety-four feet high and the

building itself one hundred and fifteen feet long gives but a glancing impression. But to stand in it, to lay your hand upon the rudely cut blocks of stone four to five feet long, to say to yourself some man hewed this stone fifteen hundred years ago, his hand rested where mine does—that seems to carry you back.

Many of the stones are marked with the names of the men who dressed them; they are laid without mortar, being held together with iron clamps, and they still look as if they would defy time and decay for centuries to come. In recent times, say a thousand years ago, a pilgrim named Simeon, from Syracuse, came to view the holy relics at Trèves. He found the place good in his sight, and took up his abode on the top of the Porta Nigra, where in due time he became one of the sights of Trèves, went to glory, was canonized, and even so far extolled as to have the Porta sometimes called Simeonsthor.

Sitting in the sunshine on a perfect August day, and eating some of the golden plums and grapes which may be bought by the handful for a sou, we do not wonder that St. Simeon selected Trèves as a desirable hermitage. A week passes like a day in this enchanting city, the telephone no longer calls you from your prayers; telegrams, letters, newspapers are all but memories of a previous state of existence; we have just begun to live here in Trèves, among her monuments, her flowers, and her old world ways.

As we came home from exploring the ruins of the Roman palace, marveling at its hot air chambers, its sumptuous baths and the storehouses of its original occupants, we came upon a scene from the Middle Ages. A man young and vigorous, in a tight-fitting suit of motley like an ancient court jester ran about the market-place shaking a tin cup. From the crowd of women and children gathered about he received occasional sous or pfennig. At last he vanished in a doorway, and in a moment reappeared in an upper window, walking out upon a tight rope which had been stretched between two buildings. He performed his little

ANOTHER VIEW OF THE PORTA NIGRA

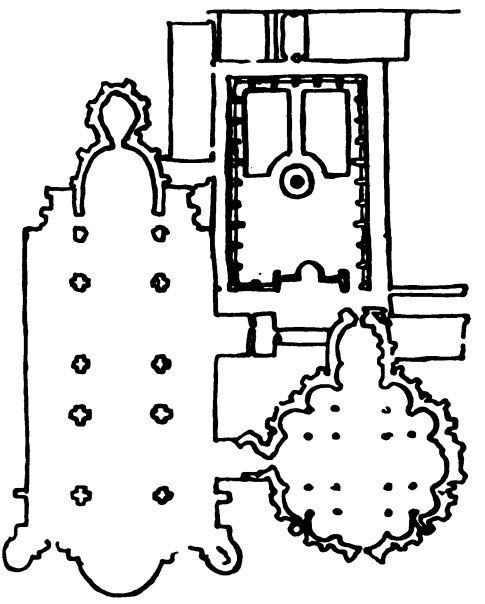
BASILICA, TREVES

part in no fear apparently of the cobblestones below, then came back once more with his cup into which the coppers fell more freely.

Just without the walls of the city are the ruins of the great amphitheater, capable of holding 28,000 people, and not much inferior in length to the arena at Rome. The seats are hewn out of the solid rocks. Here are the galleries for the entrance of the gladiators and wild beasts, and there are the pens for the wretched captives whose sufferings made the pleasure of the Emperor Constantine. Trèves was a favorite residence of this monarch; he builded much here, and in this very arena, in 306, he entertained his bloodthirsty people by the sacrifice of thousands of Franks and their princes.

During the early centuries Trèves was one of the five great cities of the world. It was the capital of Spain, Gaul, Belgium, and Britain. As a seat of learning its fame was world wide. In the fifth century so rich had it become that the covetous Huns overran it and destroyed it, and upon the ruins of Imperial Trèves rose the capital city of the Franks. Charlemagne fostered it, and gave to its cathedrals and churches various costly offerings.

Trèves had always been connected with



CATHEDRAL, LIEBFRAUENKIRCHE AND CLOISTER

the religious movement even before the Christian era. Its churches and convents, for it is a Catholic city, are rich in interest beyond the common, and its ancient Dom or Cathedral is unmatched in its historic value, and architecture. The basis of the present building is supposed to be an early Roman temple with its atrium, and to this original building every century down to the eighteenth has added its share, till the Dom as it now stands with the Liebfrauenkirche and cloister can best be shown by its ground plan.

The Liebfrauenkirche (the round central building) is the oldest Gothic church in Germany, very beautiful and very perfect, with its superb high altar, and its holy relics, none of which test the credulity of the faithful more strongly, than does the well-known "Holy Coat of Trèves."

This seamless garment which is said to have been brought to Trèves by a saint and companion of Saint Helena, was found so the legend says in the Holy Sepulchre in 326. It is in company with a nail from the Cross, enclosed in a gold and gem set casket, and a portion of the Crown of Thorns. Whatever may be our beliefs in regard to it, we may not approach the place where it is kept without a feeling of respect for a relic which has held its own for so many hundred years. But three times in as many centuries have the faithful been permitted to gaze upon it, and at the last exposition one hundred and fifty thousand pilgrims came from all parts of the world to kneel before it.

All about the country near Trèves one is constantly meeting little bands of pilgrims coming thither to visit one of its numerous churches. These bands have lost their picturesque character, for the Prussian government no longer allows them to bear banners and symbols, and they trudge along the dusty roads not even chanting, a great contrast to their more volatile neighbors across the border.

Not only does Trèves contain one of the oldest cathedrals in Germany but it also holds a basilica dating from the time of Constantine. Built entirely of Roman brick, its original use was that of a hall of justice, and it still retains its original

INTERIOR OF BASILICA

proportions, with walls one hundred feet high and ten feet thick. During the domination of the Franks it was the seat of their governors, and in 1197 it was given over to the bishops. The city passed to France in 1794, was ceded to Prussia in 1815, and the basilica then became a barrack. In 1846 it was restored, and ten years later consecrated as a Protestant church. Below the flooring are the remains of the old Roman heating arrangements.

The market-place lies nearly in the town's center, and has in it a fine fountain dating back to 1595 when it was erected by the elector, John of Schönberg. The column near the middle of the picture is much older, going back to 958. It became much weatherworn and was restored in 1723. On the top is a cross

MARKET-PLACE, TREVES, SHOWING COLUMN AND OLD RATHAUS

with the Lamb of God. The Hotel—with the awnings—is the old Rathaus, a Gothic building dating back to the fifteenth century. Every time you travel up and down the worn staircase you distinctly hear, in fancy, spurred and mailed heels ringing on the stones! There is no danger of the most absent minded traveler carrying away his bed-room keys for they are substantial affairs about a foot long and a pound in weight.

To the collector and to the student, few cities in Europe present such tempting fields. Celtic, Roman, Frankish and more modern relics may be easily found in the dusty old antique shops which have few enough customers. We bore away for a paltry sum, two figures, exquisitely carved and painted, of some saints or martyrs, who one day decorated a church or cathedral. A silver crucifix, worn thin by the finger of a devotee, was another prize, and old coins, laces, and rich stuffs abound.

There are also many treasures one may look at, yes and touch, but not bear away. are stored in the Museum and Library. In the former, nearly all its curios being gathered in and about the city, are gold, silver, and copper coins of the Roman Empire. Jewels and rings go back equally far, and come down to more modern days. Beautiful mosaics found a few feet below the present city's level, and Etruscan pottery are seen here in large numbers. In the library there is yet greater wealth. The chief treasure is the Codex Aurum, presented to the convent of St. Maximin by Ada, sister of Charlemagne. It contains the four gospels, in letters of gold upon parchment, and has fine portraits of the four Evangelists. The binding is of silver, carved, heavy, and richly gilded, and yet further enriched by precious stones. This manuscript, like so much other loot was sent after the French invasion to the Louvre. After the restoration of these plundered goods, this particular book could not be found in Paris! It was only after many diplomatic maneuvers and much finesse that it was finally returned. There are over four thousand other manuscripts but none so interesting as this.

For the pedestrian Trèves makes a headquarters for a number of unrivalled excursions in many directions. There are charming old inns scattered all about in the frequent villages, which are more than comfortable for a night's lodging. If one has a preference for the water, nothing can be half so lovely as the Moselle, though the boats are tubby, and the oars shaped out of any plank that came to hand. But who wishes to sprint when the vineyards are in blossom, or later in the year when the fruit is being gathered? Why hurry past Gondorf or Tempelhof? Who would not bide awhile at Alken with its medieval houses and fortifications or rest at the old castle of Thuron? It was at this same old stronghold, besieged for two years in 1246-48, that the besiegers are said to have consumed six hundred thousand gallons of wine, Mosellewein! The owner of the castle, so the story goes, was about to give it up to the enemy, which so enraged his soldiers that they shot him from a catapult, across the river into the enemy's camp where he arrived uninjured. He built a chapel in gratitude for his escape.

These are but a few of the scores of places one may visit under a smiling sky, for the sun ever seems to shine at Trèves.

TREVES

Barbara

By Mary E. Merington

A SULTRY July day was drawing to its close when Barbara Cortwright threw open the green slatted shutters of the sitting-room to let in the evening light and such air as was stirring abroad. She leaned her elbows on the window-sill and looked out to the sloping uplands, behind and beyond which rolled mountain after mountain, catching the last rays of a hot red sun.

Grandfather was dead; it was two months today since she had found him peacefully and eternally sleeping in his high-backed chair, on the eve of his ninetieth birthday. "Ganfer" she used to lisp when she was brought to live with him on the old farm, and "Ganfer" he had been ever since. He was a religious, hardheaded, quiet old fellow who had lived an exemplary but unimaginative life; who rose by the cock and slept by the clock. He and grandmother had been goodness itself to the little orphan girl, but they had ordered her life within their own narrow, honest lives and had allowed no scope for individuality. Father, their youngest son, was killed in a railroad accident, mother had died of a broken heart.

Everybody had supposed Ganfer would leave a pretty penny when he died, but all that was found in stocking, savings bank, and life insurance was only sufficient to yield two hundred dollars a year for Barbara; the farm and the stock were left to Uncle George, for whom the lawyer was searching out West.

Cousin Martin and Cousin Matty (by marriage) had come to stay with her until her future was settled and somebody was installed to care for the animals. They wanted her to go back and make her home with them, but Barbara felt she must breathe a freer atmosphere than would compass her if she entered their household. At present no alternative suggested itself, so the girl was looking out into the future with a heavy heart.

"I'm good at dressmaking," thought she as she glanced down at her trim sleeves and cuffs, "but sake's alive so's everybody else in these parts."

Here her meditations were cut short by a tall, lank woman who turned in at the gate between the sentinel acacias, walked over the stretch of rough grass that lay in front of the house, stepped on to the verandah and dropped into a rocking chair.

"Evening," said the visitor, in a high nasal voice.

"Good evening," answered Barbara in softer tones.

"Hot's no name for it, an' I've been a-bakin' today till I'm fairly done up. We run out o' bread and John don't fancy nobody's else but mine; it don't seem to set good with him."

Barbara shuddered—the shudder was inherited from her mother who was of good old Virginia blood. For when Mrs. Tarbell once started on John's ailments she usually went all round the village and diagnosed the entire population before she came home by way of her own interesting health.

But for once the jeremiad stopped at the third family down the pike, being interrupted by a passing buggy in which sat a shrewd-faced man and a smart-looking young girl. On the head of the latter was a cheap white chiffon hat set with tawdry flowers, and she wore a flimsy, flaunting silk coat with flaring sleeves from which ruffles of cotton lace hung over her hard-worked hands. The pair in the gig each gave a sharp little nod to the pair at the farmhouse and went on, trailing clouds of glory from the sunlit dust that followed in their wake.

"Why, there's Minnie Martin," exclaimed Barbara, "I thought she was up to Bankses place at The Corners."

"Not she," answered the newsmonger, who was always *au courant* in matters of

district interest. "Not she, indeed! Seven dollars a month and her keep, and two children to look after! She heard as Mis' Petchey was takin' borders agen an' wanted extra help, so she's given up Mis' Banks, an's goin' over to Petchey's for ten dollars. That girl always did fix up stylish and she dresses lovely now she's got a little money, though it ain't quite my fancy."

Barbara said nothing but she thought, "Ten dollars!" What could she not accomplish with as much as that for her own.

Some telepathic instinct must have animated Dame Tarbell for she turned her head with a quick jerk toward the girl at the window saying, "Why don't you git a place with Mis' Petchey, Barbara. Ten dollars a month 'ud come in mighty handy now yer gran'pa's gone, an' by the time yer saved up a bit yer'd be out of blacks an' could buy yerself some o' the right sort o' clo'es for a girl of yer age."

Barbara thought of the draggled feather that had framed Minnie's pert face all last winter, of Mistress Petchey's vinegary tongue, and of the roomers and mealers who had last summer taken possession not only of Petchey's farm, but of its entire vicinage—and the hereditary shudder ran through her again. She answered quietly, albeit a little tartly, that she should not like such a place at all.

"There's worse places than that you might get and be glad of, Barbara Cortwright, for they're steady pay and the house is as lively as anything with all them city folks in and out; and ten dollars ain't to be sneezed at."

"I know it," said Barbara, "and I'm not a bit afraid of work; but somehow I feel as though I could make a better use of my life if I only knew how to start."

"Start what?" asked Cousin Matty, coming out on to the verandah.

"Something, anything—I don't know—anything to earn some money and to be growing, not to live like a frog in a pond all the rest of my days."

"I guess you've got your growth," remarked Cousin Matty prosaically, "yer a good height already. And as for living in a frog pond, there ain't a drier house anywhere round. Long as I've visited here I've never known anything to miljew, even down cellar."

But Barbara heard no more, for she had quietly drawn in from the window and was standing in the now half-dark room, automatically rubbing her chafed elbows while her brain was busy thinking. "I can't do it," she exclaimed passionately, "I'm as good at housework as the best of the girls, and I am ready to do it any time it has got to be done. But to think of being tied down to it for the rest of my life without having seen or done anything else is more than I can stand. And what's more I won't. I've got to get out of this village for a time, to see what the world is like and how the real nice people live."

Then she sat down and thought and thought until the old colonial clock struck eight. Cousin Martin came in from his gossip at the store, and went upstairs in his stocking feet; Cousin Matty had said good-night to her crony and was shutting the front door, so Barbara closed the window and went up to her room.

However, when she reached that quiet haven she did not immediately go to bed, but sat down on the floor by a dormer-window that faced the east, and watched the full moon as it floated like a golden bubble in the sky. "I've always wanted to know what lay beyond the mountains," she mused, "and if I don't rouse up I shall be like Will-o'-the Mill and never find out till I die. It is very beautiful here and I don't want to leave home but I must earn enough to keep me. Guess I will go and talk with Mrs. Lathrop tomorrow; she knows something of the world. So now to bed." And soon she was sailing off in misty clouds that carried her far and away from the farm into the purple realms of Utopia.

The next morning dawned fresh and

fair, and the day's work was well on its way when there came a rapping at the front door. Cousin Matty wiped her hands on her apron and answered the appeal. A little lady in the prettiest of gingham dresses, with a duck of a hat to match stood outside.

"Please," she said, "would you sell me some bread and milk? I have been out for a long walk and am dreadfully hungry."

"You come right in an' set down an' you're welcome to all the milk you can drink," was the hospitable response. So the gingham lady came in and broke their bread, and was taken all over the farm and to find wild flowers that Barbara knew and that the visitor had never picked for herself, and it ended by her staying to dinner.

In the course of conversation it came out that she was a kindergarten student.

"I never thought of that," exclaimed Barbara, "that's just the thing for me; I love children and could amuse them all day. But there's nobody round here who would want a kindergartner. How can I get a place?"

"Perhaps I could help you when I return to Boston," said the lady, who owned to the name of Polly Ketcham. "What diploma have you?"

"District school certificate; the one that's framed and hanging in my room."

"What high school and training class?"

"None. Ganfer let me go to high school for one year and then he grew too old to drive me over there. Anyway I didn't need algebra and geometry, living on a farm; but I did want the elocution and singing."

"Then you never studied history or the history of art?"

"Just a little United States history of course."

"Nature study you ought to be well up in, seeing that you have always lived in the country. I am very deficient in that, that is why I am up here.—What do I mean by Nature Study? Why, looking for a wasp's nest as we did this morning. Picking mallows and ground-ivy as we did; and studying the habits of animals. That reminds me—I forgot to look at the cow's horns—Are they before or behind its ears? We had quite an argument in class about that."

"I forget," said Barbara, ruminatively.

"I can't say as I ever noticed," murmured Matty.

"Never mind, I shall see plenty of cows before I go home. And I must not forget to notice how they get up from the ground. That's another thing we argued about, whether horses or cows got up fore-feet first. Which is it?"

Barbara and her cousin pondered. "A horse—Why-y—a horse—no it's a cow gets up on its fore-feet—and so does a horse—I don't know—I never took account."

At which they all laughed merrily.

"That do beat all," said Cousin Matty.

"It came about this way, you see. We were playing 'The Cow's in the Meadow,' and the little girl who was the cow, got up on all fours at once. One of the class said to her 'Front feet first, darling'—At which another exclaimed 'Pardon me—No!—Hind legs first, dearie.' And no one knew which was right.—But to come back to what you must have studied. How about literature?"

"Literature? Oh yes, we finished that."

"That is fine; I wish I could say so. You know, Miss Cortwright, you would have to pass in all these before you could be a kindergartner, and in methods and psychology also."

"Psy-chol-o-gy! What do you want to give those poor little things psychology for? It's no wonder city children are pale and overstudied."

"Oh, no!" laughed Polly, "psychology is not for the babies; it's for the teachers so that they may know how to teach without overtaxing and worrying the little brains."

"Well, Barbary," observed her cousin when their guest had gone, "guess you'll

have to give up kidneygartning till you've done a heap more studyin'."

"'Deed and I shall," sighed Barbara.

The next day she found time to go to see Mrs. Lathrop.

"There's no field for dressmaking and I don't know enough to go as a kindergartner," was her opening; "but I write a neat hand so I thought I might get a position as secretary to a minister, or to an author, or a rich lady."

"The trouble with that, my dear girl," said the kindly minister's wife, "is that nowadays secretaries must know shorthand, and be able to use a typewriter. And with the class of people you have mentioned, a good literary education would be indispensable as well."

"I could take care of the books in a library: I love reading."

"Poor Barbie! A library that could pay any sort of salary would employ only a trained librarian."

"Then I don't see that there's anything but housework left," said Barbara dismally," and that takes all one's time without bringing in much money."

"Never mind, Barbie," said her friend. "Have faith, work hard, and all will come right in the end."

But Barbie went home sorrowful.

Weeks passed on, summer days had gone and long evenings with log-cabin quilts had set in, the house was all ready for a care-taker, and Barbara was still at home fretting and puzzling as to what she had better do. One night as they sat round the glaring unshaded lamp, Cousin Matty rock, rocking, Cousin Martin in shirt-sleeves and stocking-feet spelling through a local newspaper, Barbara sewing, a step sounded on the road. Shep, the old collie, growled and then gave a friendly yap; Barbara fluffed up her front hair and felt her ribbons and collar; a knock, and after the entry-door opened, a cheerful voice called "Anybody home?"

"Come in 'Liphalet," called Matty, and in walked a tall well-built young fellow, whose clean-shaven face was ruddy from his brisk walk in the autumn air of the mountains.

"Good evening all," was the cheery salutation as he drew up a chair and sat down.

"Guess you've come for that kittle o' soft soap for yer mother, 'Liph?" asked Cousin Matty.

"Guess again," answered Eliphalet. "Guess I'll be saying good-bye this time next week."

"Hey, what's that?" queried Martin, waking up to the world about him.

"Going to Lowell, sir. Deacon Varney's brother-in-law wants an assistant book-keeper, an' the Deacon's been good enough to get me the job."

"Sho!" grunted Martin, "An' who's to take your books at the store?"

"Addie Fletcher, she's just fresh from a course she's been taking at a summer school somewheres near Buffalo."

"Sho! An' who gits Addie's place in the Library?"

"Likely you don't know her. It's Beulah Van Winkle, friend of Addie's who's taken two years' library training at the same summer school as Addie went to."

"Sho! An' who steps into her shoes?"

"If they weren't too big Barbara might," remarked Eliphalet gallantly. "All Beulah's doing is helping round at her aunt's."

Barbara tossed her head, rocked hard, and was going to say something saucy when Cousin Matty faced round on Eliphalet.

"Tell you 'Liph the woman—or the man either for that matter—who got hold of Barbara Cortwright to keep their house in order 'ud be mighty lucky. There ain't a neater-handed girl in these parts, an' what she don't know about cookin', and' picklin', an' preservin' ain't worth knowin'. Books, an' learnin', an' figgerin' an' all that highfalushun's mighty good for one quarter of the world; but I'd like to know how they'd eat ef there wasn't the other three-quarters to fix their victuals

an' feed 'em on time; an' where they'd sleep ef their beds wasn't made for them to lie on; an' who'd keep 'em from gettin' inter their robes o' glory years afore they wanted to wear 'em ef there wasn't some one to sweep, an' dust, an' scrub out the mike robes they're forever talkin' about?"

Eliphalet missed the minor, individual premise in his consideration of the greater sociological problems that the speaker propounded; and as soon as she drew breath he began to hold forth on the Brotherhood of Man, the equal division of land and the unquestionable blessings that Socialism must ultimately bring about.

Barbara had reddened when he had playfully suggested her as Beulah's successor. Addie was a good soul whose father was a politician and could get positions for her at any time. Beulah would never know more than the outsides of books no matter what course she took; Barbara had once been in a class with her and knew just what *she* was like. She, herself, had always ranked ahead of both of them—and 'Liph thought that sweeping and dusting and making pot-cheese was good enough for her. So though he went on to tell them about his prospects and the nature of his duties and she sat with both ears open, she sewed away very hard or talked audibly to Shep and at last yawned so ostentatiously as to puzzle Eliphalet with whom she had always been on very neighborly terms.

It was the ungodly hour of nine before he got up to go, then with a sudden, conventional, "Good-night all," he precipitated himself through the door after the manner of other village Corydons and was soon heard striding down the road.

Martin went up stairs, Matty followed after locking the front door, though the side doors were unbolted; Barbara rocked vehemently, bringing her foot down with a smart tap every time she tipped forward, while she bit off her thread and folded up her work.

"There's fish in the sea no doubt of it
As good as ever came out of it;
So we don't care, so we don't care,
So we don't care, so I DON'T CARE,"

she hummed emphatically as she turned out the lamp. The first two lines she sang with no *arrière pensée* but simply because they occurred in the verse; but the last two she meant and meant hard, at least so she assured herself and anyone who might overhear her as she ascended the staircase.

When she was shut into her room and had lit the fragrant lamp she took an old geography from the shelf that ran along the wall and opened it at the Eastern States: "Massachusetts, capital Boston. This city has a population of over half a ———"

"Barbara," came a voice from the passage, "did you turn out the settin'-room lamp?"

The girl jumped as though she had been caught red-handed in a crime, but she answered pretty steadily as she slipped the book back in its place, "Ye-es, and waited till the chimney cooled."

"All right."

A door went to with a clip and the house was at rest for the night.

A week of days soon slips away when it is portioned out in washing, ironing, mending, sweeping, and baking; with Christian Endeavor after supper on Tuesday, prayer-meeting on Wednesday and the Sewing Circle on Thursday afternoon. But life so little varied becomes a trifle monotonous and the soul stagnates when no angel troubles its depths. Matty and Martin did not mind; they were sublimely unconscious of any lack in their path of existence; circles, sewing or of any other description, were their standard of completeness, no matter how small an area they enclosed.

But Barbara was dissatisfied without knowing why. Something was wanting. Her work had always been done willingly and well, because she accepted it as an indisputable postulate that the care of the

home was the woman's part as the ploughing and reaping was that of the man. She enjoyed and reverently took part in Sunday worship, prayer meetings, and rallies; she was a faithful member of dear, prosy, old Mr. Lathrop's Bible Class; she sewed her full share in the Circle. But when all the other girls and youths of her own age began to talk flippantly and about inane trifles before they had crossed the church threshold; when the talk over the sewing was sordid and small; when the home table was silent or personal—it jarred upon her. So that despite her good health, her young face commonly wore a discontented look. The physical atmosphere was bracing and wholesome; the mental was malarial. There were some few people who could bring out the dimples in her cheek and the bright intelligence of her brown eyes, but most of them lived too far off for her to meet them constantly and intimately. Eliphalet Borden did not mind a good walk and as he had relatives near Ganfer's farm, it happened that she often saw him. He always had something to talk about so it was a pleasure to admit him to her friendship.

On his occasional visits to the farm he would start warm, albeit youthful, arguments with Ganfer. The old gentleman was very set and the young one very alert, so that the contest always reminded Barbara of the sharpening of a bright knife on a dull hearth-stone. She could understand but a fraction of their debate, yet through this she caught a glimpse of that greater world that lay beyond her mountain-bound horizon. Now Ganfer had gone and 'Liphalet was going; Barbara was like a bee that feels the fresh air blowing over it from the open half of a window, while it beats against the glass and cannot find its way to freedom.

Punctually in a week Eliphalet dropped in to say good-bye.

"Here's my fishing-rod for you, Mr. Crowe. It's too long to carry such a distance. Mother sends this bag of chestnuts to you Mrs. Crowe. And I don't want this old book of poetry so I'll give it to Barbara."

Then he and Martin got talking about winter wheat and the price of hogs until eight o'clock when he rose and said, "Good-bye all," and shook hands in honor of the occasion. They all went to the door with him and he, going forth into the darkness, was soon lost to sight.

The ensuing week rolled by on lumbering wheels; at its close Barbara went upstairs one sunny afternoon and taking out her little store of money carefully counted it over: forty-five dollars and seventy-five cents. She restored it to its hiding place. "Ten he gave me last Christmas, ten on my birthday, five I made with my bantam's eggs; see, that's ten and ten are twenty, and five are twenty-five; two and a half for the wild grape jelly those city ladies bought, seven for helping Jenny with her wedding sewing, eight in Ganfer's old purse, and three-twenty-nine left over from my spending money. That's right." Then she turned out her bureau drawers, chose a few serviceable and necessary articles from her fineries and small wardrobe and locked the others up securely in the closet where her winter clothes lay wrapped in thick paper and reeking of malodorous tarballs. This done she sat down to study a railway map with its times and connections, a map that she had sent for lately. "I shall get there by six in the morning," she murmured. "The Deacon will take care of Sheppie, and Mrs. Lathrop of Kitty Clover. She'll be only too glad to have the milk and cream from an Alderney in return for her keep." Then she brushed some imaginary dust from her hat and jacket and went down stairs.

At supper time she sprung a mine on her two relatives.

"I am going to hire out in a city family," was her mild prelude.

"Noo York, London, or Parrus?" was Martin's jocular query as he reached across the table and helped himself to butter with his own knife.

"Boston," was her answer.

"For the land's sake, Barbara Cortwright!" cried Mrs. Crowe struggling with emotion and a startled mouthful. "What are you dreamin' of? Ain't there nothin' nearer but you must go that outlandish distance away? Kingston's nearer."

"So's Barham, Cousin Matty; but Boston's older and bigger and better, so it is to Boston I am going."

And so it came about that five days later, after good-byes all round, a surprise party the evening before she left, many salt tears and much kissing, one warm September morning Barbara found herself walking over Boston Common. She was bending her steps toward the Young Women's Christian Association, to which at Mrs. Lathrop's instigation, she had sent letters of reference beforehand. By dint of intelligent inquiry she had easily found the place and was soon eating a frugal breakfast there. Had she been ten years older she would have seen the difficulties and dangers that beset her undertaking; but mountain-bred, home-nurtured and only seventeen years old she was like a young child that crosses a plank in safety because it is looking ahead and does not see the depths below.

As soon as the stores were open she went to a well-recommended intelligence office and applied for work. So few families were back in town, she was told, that the chance of a situation under ten days was highly doubtful; still she might as well wait and see. The room was half full when she came in and by the afternoon it was crowded while very few employers appeared. She sat there through one long day, and then through another, crying herself to sleep that night. On the third she went again, resolved to sit out another weary stretch of time and then if nothing came, to try another office or to advertise.

Fortune favored the brave. Just as she was growing desperate a carriage and pair drove up to the door and a minute later a well-dressed woman entered the room. After a short conversation with the proprietor of the office she went up to a young woman and spoke to her. The girl sat awkwardly and unconcernedly in her chair during the interview that followed, and she was the catechist.

"How many girls you keep? How many you haf in famlee? Vot days does the girl get oud? Vot vages you geef? No, I vont eighdeen dahlers and I not vear caps."

"You won't do at all," said the lady looking down the line for a likelier subject. Her eye fell on Barbara and she rose and went across the room to speak to her.

"'Barbara Cortwright; housemaid, chambermaid, or nursemaid; no city experience; excellent references certified by Y. W. C. A.; wages twelve to fourteen dollars,'" read the lady from a slip she held in her hand. "Is this Barbara?"

"Yes, madam," answered the young girl, who had courteously risen as soon as she was addressed.

"Be seated," said the lady. "How do you come to be in Boston looking for work, alone and so far from home"

Her manner, though imperative, was so kindly that before she realized it Barbara had given the stranger a frank and rapid sketch of her life, her limitations, and her aspirations.

And the girl was so simple and earnest that the lady unhesitatingly told her she would try her for a week. Her wages would be twelve dollars a month; she must wear pink cotton dresses in the morning, a black dress in the afternoon. Caps and aprons would be provided for her.

"I will look up your references before I go home," she said as she handed her card to Barbara. "You may come to me this afternoon."

"Caps and aprons," said Barbara as she fairly danced over the pavement on her way to her lodgings. "I have a good lot of gingham aprons with me, wonder

what style of cap she'll choose." She studied the card in her hand—"Mrs. Morgan Protheroe, 79 Beacon St.," and had she been an older inhabitant of good St. Botolph's Town she would have known that the name was one of the truly best in New England, and the address what Cousin Matty would have denoted as that of very swell folks.

She paid her board, packed her bag, and set off for her new home. She had been too much dazed by the great city the first day she entered it to be capable of any more surprise or admiration, and took the fine house that proved to be her goal, quite as a matter of course and in keeping with all the huge churches, brilliant stores, and long streets.

The door was opened by a Japanese youth of courtly manners and immobile countenance. Mrs. Protheroe appeared with a rosy-cheeked Irish girl whom she made known as Molly and into whose charge she put Barbara. After a few preliminaries the girl took the new maid upstairs and throwing open the door of a pretty little room said to her in a rich brogue, "It's sorry I am fur ye but ye'll have to be shlaping alone. There's three of us an' yerr the odd one, an' it would be too crrowded intoirely in our room."

Barbara hastened to assure her that she was in no whit afraid to be alone, but did not add her private opinion that it was much pleasanter to have a room to herself. The possibility of being put in with a stranger had never occurred to her in her plannings and supposings.

"Oim the laundress," explained Molly. "Oill take yerrr down an' interjuce yer to Bridget presently. The nayger who opened the dourrr is a Jappy wid a name as long as me arrum, an' the face of a wax-worrks on him; an' ye couldn't git a shmoile out of 'im if ye tried from now to St. Pathrrick's."

She went off about her work for awhile but came back in time to help Barbara don a smart white cap, turn-over collar and cuffs, and an apron with bretelles, tied with strings as broad as a Sunday sash.

Barbara went down the staircase as though she were walking in a dream, and the feeling did not wear off until several days had passed and she began to be acclimated. She met Bridget, the cook, and supped with her and Molly in very friendly fashion. Kayasari, she found, roomed and ate with the coachman's family. After the meal, Molly who was the soul of good-nature, showed Barbara as many of her duties as time allowed and ended by leaving her in a beautiful dining room.

"Dinner's at a quahterr past siven tonoight," she said. "Here's the keys, an' the Madam says she'll be down an' take a shquint at yer table beforr dinnerrtoime. Oill help ye on wid yer tableclarth. There's eight that will be aytin'."

"Eight that will be eighteen," thought the novice, "whatever can she mean?"

"Eight what, please?" she added aloud.

"Eight of the quahlity, eight of the gintry, eight people to feed," Molly explained, and Barbara grasped her meaning at the climax.

When the lady of the house came in she found her waitress crouching down and peering into the depths of the sideboard, evidently searching for something.

"What is it?" she asked.

"Please, ma'am, I can't find the castor, or the toothpicks."

Mrs. Protheroe stifled a smile and accounted for the absence of these articles; but she had much ado to keep from laughing out when she turned and saw the table. At each place was a compact little bunch of knife, fork and teaspoon; in every tumbler was a blooming calla of a napkin, Barbara's *chef-d'œuvre,* learned from a school friend who had worked in a restaurant; a bunch of spoons in a glass on one side of the center was balanced by a sugar-bowl on the other; eight breakfast plates in a pile and a steel knife for the lady opened the silver-drawer and taking butter completed the arrangement. The

out an array of oyster forks, soup, dessert, orange and berry spoons, tiny salt-cellars, cheese-knife, crumb-tray, and whatnot other instruments of refined civilization, she deftly set two places as models and left the other six to Barbara while she looked to the candles and flowers. "An old servant of mine will wait tonight; you may stand near the butler's door to help and learn by watching her," relieved an awful apprehension that was weighing on the new maid's heart.

From a coign ōf vantage Molly made known the *dramatis personæ* as they came and went before dinner. "The tahlest gintleman is Misther Protheroe; the one tahler than him is his ildest son, Misther Hubert; Masther Horace is at home but he's out tonight. Ow, but there's Miss Helena an' she looks like a quane, though it's ownly white swiss that her thdress is. That's Miss Margaret, God bless her. The big man's a jooge, and the fat little fehler crossin' the hohll is a capitalist, whativer that may be. The lady that Kayai joost let in is an arthur what wroites books. Dade no an' it's not a party, nor a chrishning, nor a wake; they do be havin' these sociables ahl the toime, an' they don't kape their bist clo'es fur Soonday. Play-actors, an' arthurs, an' milly-ou-airs, an' gintlemen, is ahlways a dhroppin' in fur dinner orr to shpind the avening. There's foine sassoiety in ourr house."

Barbara went to her place in the dining room. She was so dazzled by the lights, and the dress and the unwonted surroundings, that when at length she was off duty and able to think, she found it hard to recollect what had taken place in the last few hours. But of one thing she was sure and that was that she was among very learned people because they talked so much. Miss Margaret, a bright schoolgirl, had asked what caused such dreadful strikes. The capitalist had given one answer, Mr. Hubert another, the judge had arbitrated, and the rest applauded. She had caught the terms, "Slav—Poles—Russian—Saxon—Roman—amalgamation" (that was a puzzler) "nationality—willing to work for starvation wages—rights of man"—and a lot of kindred expressions that she had heard Eliphalet use in convincing Ganfer. What would she not give to understand what it all meant.

"Shure, they ta'k loike books," Molly assented when they went up stairs at ten o'clock. (Ten! what would the folks at home think of such hours?) "It's me to be oop till iliven this week an' you nixt. Whin you're settled ye'll git done yer wurrk about half-past eight. Wishin' yer good-night."

How Barbara slept!

A month flew swiftly by with plenty of spare minutes though not often spare hours in a day. Barbara would have been glad to do some methodical reading in these odd moments if only she had known how to set about it. As it was she picked up an old magazine here and a paper there and got what she could out of them. Her work was not light but it was so well ordered that, in common with the other servants, she knew just what was expected of her; and as a rule, just what time to call her own.

When Mrs. Protheroe paid her her first wages, she told Barbara that she was greatly pleased with her improvement and would give her fourteen dollars at the end of six months. Then after pointing out wherein she might yet improve she asked kindly, "Tell me how it is you are usually home so early on your Thursday out. Have you no friends in the city?"

"No, ma'am."

"Aren't you lonely? Though I must say you don't look so."

"No ma'am, thank you. I go for a good long walk and then I come back and sew or read."

"That sounds sensible. What do you read, romances?"

"Ma'am?"

"Do you read stories?"

"I haven't any to read, or else I should," answered the girl with a retrospective glance at the "Elsie Books," "Eight

Cousins," and "Young Girl's Library" (twenty-four volumes) of her acquaintance. "I have the magazine Miss Margaret gave me with the 'Landmarks of Old Boston,' in it, and I am trying to find the places when I go out walking."

Mrs. Protheroe looked up in surprise; she was not accustomed to waitresses with a turn for self-improvement; the modest autobiography given her at the Intelligence Office had impressed her favorably, but she took it for granted that the girl's great aim was to see a little of the world and to earn more than she could at home.

"Come to the library just before luncheon," she said, "and I will find a book that tells you more about them."

That evening Barbara made time to write to her grandfather's old friend Deacon Varney, and to enclose six dollars which she asked him to put in Barham Bank for her. "I am learning a great deal," she wrote, "not only about waiting but about everything else. But oh dear! there's so much I don't know. At first I tried to remember everything I heard, but I soon gave that up as impossible. Then a bright idea struck me; I bought a blank-book and every evening I set down in it anything I understand enough to catch; sometime I may find a way to get at what the notes mean."

A few days later she was on evening duty, and as frequently happened, the silent Japanese boy was sitting in the kitchen, intent on a book. Suddenly he rose, laid the volume before her and said in his odd, guttural tones—"What that mean?" Barbara spelled out Trans-cen-den-tal-ism and shook her head. Kayasari looked impassive but he was evidently incredulous.

"You write. You not read?"

"Oh, yes," was the quick response, "indeed I do, but I don't know every word in the English language."

"You have dictionary? Mine over at John's."

"I have none, Kayasari."

"You no dictionary? How you find words?" persisted the quiet little man.

"I don't find them. Look here," and she drew her note-book from under her box of superfine gilt-edged stationery, "I want to know what all these mean."

"I get my dictionary," and with a swift, noiseless step he left the room.

He returned in quick order with two small well-thumbed lexicons, Japanese-English and Japanese-French, by comparing which he came to a rapid decision as to the meaning of transcendentalism, as was shown by the explanation he gave to Barbara. Having accomplished this he handed over the books that she might find what she wanted,and resumed his studies. She took them with a joyful anticipation of the help they would give her, but as soon as she opened them she cried, "Oh, Kayasari, I cannot read either French or Japanese."

"I deeply regret your inability," was his polite, monotoned reply, as he took back the books and returned to his reading.

Barbara was curious to know what so deeply engrossed him, so in a few minutes she asked him what was his book. For answer he turned the title to her: "Literary Leaders of America."

"The prose of Emerson is good," he announced authoritatively, "but the poetry of Shakespeare is better than the poetry of Emerson."

"How do you know?" was her astonished query.

"I read Shakespeare in my country; I read Emerson at the Pilgrim Church here every week," answered Kayasari, making both *reads* in the present tense.

"Pilgrim Church! That's where I go."

"I have the inestimable honor to see you there," said the gentle Oriental, without varying a semitone in his voice.

"When do you read Emerson?"

"It is a few who meet and we do read and talk on Tuesdays. We read this book" (indicating "Literary Leaders") and we do write the exegesis—and we go on the Travels."

"It sounds fine," thought Barbara," but way above me."

Her intention to question him further was cut short by the drawing-room bell and when she came down her colleague had gone.

"I'll spend next Thursday afternoon in the library and have a good time with the dictionaries," she decided one morning as she was dusting. As she went to the housemaid's cupboard in the hall near her room to hang up her tools, an old book fell on to her head; in putting it up she found a long row of out-of-date encyclopedias on the shelf. "Ould roobish that was free to innybody," Molly assured her. A forty-niner in quest of gold never experienced a more joyful thrill than did this girl when she came upon this find. As she glanced into one of the books and then noted that the row covered the alphabet she resolved to read from A to Z, thinking that in this wise she would compass the essentials of human learning from Alpha to Omega. But poor Barbie! The first article floored her and had it not been for a friendly picture of a threshing machine under *Agriculture* she would have put by the volume in despair. There came a time when the encyclopedia was one of her best helps and she laughed at this experience, but now it was a little tragedy.

"I am making very pleasant friends in the church," she wrote home about this time, "and have been out to supper several times. Our minister is fine." She had been going to say *elegant,* but remembered that Mrs. Protheroe had called up Miss Margaret for using the word inelegantly. "He is full of life and as smart as a steel trap—" Dear, dear! She crossed out the last phrase. A visitor had employed it one day at luncheon and some of the family had cited it as a proof that she was a very ordinary person—"and very smart. He called on me last week and has invited me to join his Tuesday Reading Club—but I guess that's beyond me. Sometimes I get very homesick, and life isn't all Fourth of July fireworks—but on the whole I am very happy. . . ." Then in her own crude way she went on to say that she just loved her dining-room duties for they gave her the chance to hear the table talk of refined, and not infrequently, of very great people. The conversation that she now heard was simple and natural, concerning itself with human affairs without descending to petty personalities, touching on topics of world-wide interest. And she had come to see that most people do not know such an extraordinary amount as she had once supposed, and that learned men do not recite from books, but that they read the papers intelligently, not for the nasty murders but for the history of their own times, be it contained in accounts of automobile races, in the price of stocks, or in the foreign and domestic dispatches.

"I want the table to look especially nice tomorrow, Barbara," said her mistress who now left everything to her, "Sir Charles and Lady Wallingford, and Mr. Auchmuty will be here; also I expect Master Horace." Mr. Henry Auchmuty was a self-made man who began life on a farm and was now known as The Cotton King. Barbara was exceedingly anxious to see and hear him for he was always being quoted as a shining example of what a man could accomplish, and there was a sub-conscious idea in her brain that if one human being could evolve so much out of mind and matter what might not she, a fellow-creature, accomplish in a smaller way.

When Master Horace was inclined to shirk and came home with a second-rate report, Mr. Auchmuty was brought on the stage; how with no advantages he had hammered out an education, and what an education he had achieved. Horace made no pretense of saying that the biographies of Walter Scott and Goldsmith pleased him better. "Walter was slow, and Nolly was nowhere in school," was his lively defense—"and look where they stand now."

"That's all the English literature you know," teased Margaret.

"And it isn't English either," added

Helena, "for one was a Scotchman and the other an Irishman."

The gentleman came in on the evening of the dinner and looking round the warm comfortable dining-room said in a deep full voice, "It is good to be here."

"It must be a year since we last saw you," remarked the hostess as they drew up to the table.

"A year come Candlemas," corrected Margaret when grace had been said.

Auchmuty gave the damsel a comical look; but before he could make any remark, Horace, who was at the misogynistic age spoke up.

"The girls are High because the bookmarkers and altar-cloths are such lovely colors and the names of the days are so sweet. Hubert is Low because Polly Ketcham is and goes slumming."

"And you?" asked the visitor slyly.

"Broad," answered the lad promptly.

"I thought so," responded Auchmuty laughing. "But tell me, who is Polly Ketcham?"

The discreet Kayasari happened to be passing tabasco to Mr. Hubert at this juncture, giving that young gentleman a chance to turn from the eyes of the table and to confide to his left shoulder remarks that were neither brotherly nor complimentary. Barbara had given such a start at hearing a familiar name that she almost dropped a plate.

"She's the sweetest thing," exclaimed Helena. "She's lovely," said Margaret. "She certainly is," assented Mrs. Protheroe, "lovely in our American sense you know, Sir Charles."

"Wasn't she teaching?" asked the paterfamilias.

"No. She trained to be a kindergartner and intended to teach, but an uncle recently died and left a comfortable income to her and her mother. Now there is no need to earn her own living she is giving her time to the Settlement House children."

"Modeled on your own Toynbee Hall, Lady Wallingford," remarked the host to the beautiful woman at his right. Then they all got talking about settlements, and the Salvation Army, and the growth of great cities, and the high prices of food, and the Tenement House Laws, and restricted immigration and a dozen kindred topics.

"Sociology is a mighty interesting subject," said Mr. Auchmuty when they came to a stop.

"Sociology! Good gracious!" thought the demure looking waitress, "why that's what 'Liph used to talk about to Ganfer, and I don't believe he ever studied sociology. Why even I know some of the answers," she added, throwing the sentiment into concrete form.

"A year ago is it," mused the Cotton King, reverting to the remark that came on with the oysters. "To look at you girls, one wouldn't believe it. No sign of spectacles or blue-stockings yet."

As nobody seemed to resent this allusion to her young ladies' hose, Barbara supposed it was all right but she made a mental note of it as a very personal remark.

"What fun your papers do poke at the Boston women," observed Lady Wallingford. "It is a shameless libel for they are simply charming."

"There is a skit that struck me as extremely droll, you know," chimed in Sir Charles. "A very pretty girl in one of your newly rich western towns is showing her books to an ultra-literary-looking Bostonian. 'Have you read Browning?' asks the latter. 'N-no,' is the timorous answer. 'Have you Praed?' says the inquisitor. 'Oh, no!' answers the frightened girl, 'I never tried that' ——."

"Fancy!" murmured Lady Wallingford.

"That's a libel on both cities," pouted Helena.

"The greater the truth, the greater the libel," was Horace's sententious comment.

"'Si non e vero e ben trovato.' It's a good story," summed up Auchmuty.

"Ratius doesn't see the joke because he does not know who Praed is," said Hubert,

glad to get a dig at his younger brother.

"I shan't be able to remember a fraction of the things I don't know tonight," sighed Barbara. "Oh dear, oh dear! Where *do* they learn it all."

But it was time for coffee and not for wondering, so she put her mind on her work. As she set a little Sèvres cup down for the tall Englishman he turned to Miss Helena saying, "Was it not one of your countrymen, Miss Protheroe, who told the steward on a liner to bring him a large cup of demi-tasse?"

"Very likely," she assented, "for there are all sorts and conditions of men in this broad land. But here's a Roland for your Oliver, Sir Charles. Once when father and mother were in Scotland, a little man from Birmingham sat next them on the coach from Loch Katrine to Aberfoyle, and pointed out places of interest to them. Going over the hills he jerked his thumb towards the valley and the heights beyond and said impressively 'Them's the Cossacks'."

"And what were they?" queried her sister.

"Ha, ha! The Trossachs, Miss Margaret," answered Sir Charles; "Brummagen town is famed for its pinchbeck."

"That was on our wedding tour," said Mr. Protheroe.

"Too short a purse to go about in your own touring car then, Morgan; hey?" said his old friend.

"Yes, indeed. And to parody Burnand when he makes Helen expostulate with Menelaus—

> 'The auto, dear,
> Though you may jeer,
> Is not invented yet'."

"Only you should have left the comma out before *dear* to make it perfect," added his wife.

"Speaking of traveling, who is on a 'Reading Journey Through Italy'? I saw an annotated copy lying on the hall table," and Mr. Protheroe's eye glanced round the table but no one met it affirmatively.

"It was an article in a magazine, evidently one of a series, well illustrated and apparently very interesting. You girls ought to take it up to supplement Hare and Lawrence Hutton."

"What is the magazine, Morgan?" asked his wife.

"Choctaw, or some such name. It's a new one to me."

"Barbara," signed the madam, "get the book and hand it to your master."

As the maid laid it down she said quietly, "It belongs to Kayasari, sir."

Protheroe gave a surprised glance at his deft butler whose features remained decorously unmoved, but said nothing until the young man's duties called him from the room.

"The Yellow Peril menaces our prestige," he then declared in a low tone. "It is the invaluable Kaya who is doing Italy, and his notes smack of scholarship. Name of the journal? Let us see," and he turned to the cover—"The name is The Chawtauquan."

"Shautauquan," corrected Auchmuty. "New magazine indeed! It is one of my oldest and best friends. I tell you, Morgan," and his fist came down on to the the table, "if it were not for that magazine and its reading courses, I should be a poor man on a poor farm as I was twenty-five years ago."

"That's high praise," commented Sir Charles, with a note of interrogation in his voice and attitude.

"Talk of Toynbee Hall, and the Salvation Army, and the Settlement, and the Kindergarten, they can't hold a a candle to Chautauqua," continued the cotton magnate enthusiastically. "I am a pretty decent specimen of what the institution can produce, and there's hundreds more fellows—and women too—who owe all their advancement in life to it. I'll go farther than that; it is a potent factor in the advancement of the nation. How? I'll show you. Son gets hold of a circular, sends for the books, spends his evenings at home reading, interests father and mother, ropes them into the scheme—

family united. Mother picks up magazine waiting for kettle to boil or when the men are late for meals, forgets to lose her temper; goes to sewing circle, brags about what her boy is doing and the diplomas they are all going to get, sets all the other women pining for diplomas. Father airs what he picks up at the election primaries, talks about the racial composition of the nation as influencing voting, comes home feeling fine, and sets all the men gossiping to their wives about what a start-out the old man has made. Minister gets interested, forms a Round Table. Round Table sends delegates to Chautauqua—North, South, East and West, every state represented at the Rally. Union cemented. How's that?"

"It sounds Utopian," said Sir Charles. "Brings all classes together and levels all distinctions, that's the idea? But how do any but the leisure classes get time to read a four years' course and work for a parchment?"

"Little drops of water idea," responded Auchmuty. "It's all planned out for you and you pledge yourself to five minutes a day. The man who can't find that will spend ten in swearing at the cat. What I stated theoretically a minute ago is what happened actually in our village and I was the son who started the stone a-rolling. Our minister was called to a city pulpit two years after he had finished the course, because he had found something to put into his sermons. My diploma hangs in my den today."

"I don't see how a diploma could make you so rich," objected Horace, who had no hankering after such a document.

"No, my boy," assented his father, "nor does any other youth of your age. There is no hurry, you will some day."

"It was the habits it got me into," explained the successful man, "disciplined reading, the profitable employment of odd minutes, an interest in human affairs, a healthy attitude of mind, an awakening of the powers of observation, the enlarged ability to predict effects from cause, an increased vocabulary, a better and less subjective view of my entity, the realization that I was an objective unit and part of a great plan and that if I grew less perfect than I was created the symmetry of the plan was marred."

They were all still for a minute or more, then Mrs. Protheroe rose and the ladies went into the drawing-room; the gentlemen stayed to talk, and Barbara came down from the skies into the kitchen.

The five minutes' scheme appealed to her; she thought of it as soon as she got up the next morning and after breakfast she lay in wait for Kayasari to ask him where he had obtained his magazine.

"My pastor he order it. You like you read mine."

"Thank you, I should like it very much," cried Barbara joyfully, and at the first opportunity he brought it to her. She took it eagerly—In the cover was a neat label on which was written "Property of Kayasari Tujita, Chautauqua Circle of the Pilgrim Church, Boston."

"Oh, Kayasari, is there a Circle in our church? Can any one join it?"

"I have reason to believe that no obstacle is opposed to the enrollment of any desirable person," came the measured answer.

"O'oh!! *When* do you meet?" said the eager Westerner.

"The reverend pastor is so beneficent as to order his time that he may convene the meeting on the Tuesday recurring twice in the month," was the slow speaking Oriental's answer.

"Everything is against me," wailed the disappointed girl. "That is not my evening out, and I cannot ask to change, because it is yours."

As this was an indisputable fact, her fatalistic hearer accepted it without comment and went off to clean windows. When that work was done he sat down to correct the Japanese proof of an article on "The Philosophy of Being," that he had translated from the *North American Review* for a Tokio journal.

But somehow through Bridget's friendly agency Barbara's dilemma and disappointment got to Mrs. Protheroe's ears. And the consequence was that Barbara was called upstairs and questioned, given the five dollars for her books and permission to go every second Tuesday unless she were especially needed at home.

"An' phwat's more," said Bridget, "the marrster sint do'n foive dahlers apiece to we three to privint a shinnanergan, says he."

"An' it's a foine beau Kayai 'ull be making furr ye of a Chuesday," said Molly.

"It's his afternoon out and he goes to the Japanese Mission and reads Chinese with some of his countrymen," answered Barbara, laughing, "so he won't be here to *eskarrt* me, Paddy."

"Howly Pether! Who'd 'a thought the naygur had as much sinse in him!"

It was a balmy spring evening when Barbara went to her first meeting. As there was ample time she strolled at a leisurely pace across the Common. How lovely everything looked! A sickle moon was outlined in the primrose western sky; nesting birds were twittering before they tucked their noisy heads under their wings, and a mellow-voiced robin was fluting his vespers from the top of a lofty tree. Underfoot the thick grass vied in tender color with the emerald knots of flowers bourgeoning out of the leafless sycamore-maples, while bushes of scarlet japonica flamed in the last of the daylight. Everything was young, and fresh, and sweet, and growing. What wonder that the young country girl felt a great throb of happiness pulse through her heart, though a sob rose in her throat at the same instant.

Eight months since she had left home. What would she not give to see her cousins, Mrs. Lathrop, the Deacon, Kitty Clover and Sheppie—and 'Liph. And yet how she loved her mistress, the family, the home atmosphere, and the refinement. How could she bear to leave them and this beautiful old city, to go back to her narrow old life? A clock chimed three-quarters and awakened her to a sense of the present; she quickened her steps, and before the hour was being cordially welcomed by the friendly minister and such of the class as were yet there.

The Japanese and two friends sat a little way from the front, an elderly German couple on one side of Barbara and a man whose face was not in range not far from her on the other. The exercises opened with the hymn, "Come my soul, thou must be waking," and after five minutes for business, the literary program started.

The young minister was an admirable leader; he flattered answers out of diffident followers, gave the eager a chance to be heard. He explained difficulties without being didactic and he constantly supplied new material for question and for thought.

Barbara was delighted; the book of the evening was "The Evolution of Industrial Society," and seeing the title she had feared it would be too deep, as she phrased it. But it proved to be entirely within her comprehension, and the debates that passages in it provoked were highly interesting, especially as they were timed and had to be brief. Following a law in dynamics, what they lost in time, they gained in power. Mr. Kunito read a short résumé of the Japanese War news; somebody else gave three posers on the reading matter in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, answers to be handed in next week and by this time the session was over.

"Before we rise let me have the pleasure of introducing three new members to our Circle," said the leader, bowing in the direction of each as he proceeded to name them. "Mr. Kurisaki Togi of Niphon, Miss Barbara Cortwright at present living in Boston, and Mr. Eliphalet Borden who has just come from Lowell to become a fellow-townsman."

"Barbara!" said her neighbor.

"O 'Liphalet!" squealed Barbara, but

the noise of wooden chairs being pushed aside prevented anybody from hearing or noticing them.

"Which way do you go?" he asked after they had gripped hands like two shipwrecked sailors who meet on an island.

"Beacon Street? Let us say good night to the parson, and I will take you home."

What explanations, and conversations, and interrogations those two did crowd into their walk! They beat Mrs. Mangnall in their prodigal use of question-marks; but they came to a full stop at last when they reached the house in Beacon Street.

"You may call for me on Sunday in time for evening service, if you like," said Barbara who was fairly treading on air after this doubly happy evening.

"I may, may I. Supposing I've promised some nice Boston girl to call for her?"

"Bring her too, and we'll get acquainted. Good night."

And so it came about that in her odd minutes Barbara read for two years and covered a four years' course, and once a week Eliphalet came and sat in the servants' dining room or the kitchen and straightened out notes with her. And all the Protheroes got deeply interested in the young people. One fine day there came a diploma from Chautauqua that everybody must look at and which went into a neat frame on Barbara's wall. Kayasari shot ahead of the others by a year, and left to attend a New York university. Molly declared that his heart had gone and cracked whin he set eyes on Mister Borrden—a romance of Celtic origin.

Eliphalet had been promoted to the Boston office and was drawing a good salary. "You see I started with a high school education and a year at a commercial school," he would say modestly when he was congratulated or praised. "He does his work well and on time," was his chief's dictum. On more than one occasion he had taken a wise initiative, and on one memorable day when walking delegates were prowling round and the men in the factory looked ugly, he had shown such a notable measure of fearlessness and resource that his "boss" had marked him for immediate advancement. Out of his two weeks' vacation he spent one with his happy parents and the other was devoted to visiting such mills and other plants as would allow him within their gates. The consequence was that he knew more of the inner workings and the minutiæ of his firm's business than would ever have been required of him in his position of book-keeper. He was deeply interested in labor problems and social conditions and after he had been in Boston for ten months, took up his residence as a worker in a Settlement House.

At first he bore himself aggressively toward the Harvard men whom he met there, forgetting that it was no more their fault to have been born well-off than it was his to have been born poor, and that it was a common purpose that brought them together. But coming to know them through association in the work and meeting them at the dinner table on an equality as regarded hunger and the desire to appease it, this attitude was soon relaxed and ultimately changed.

Meantime Barbara had advanced to eighteen dollars a month and her banker, the Deacon, writing to acknowledge a remittance, remarked that she was growing so rich that next thing they knew she would be coming back to buy up Barham. But the damsel had other views in mind. She did go home once when the family went to Europe, but the next summer they took her with them to the cottage at Bar Harbor where for the first time she looked upon the ocean in all its glory. Now the third summer was approaching, and having decided to carry out her intention of going through high school, she took counsel with her mistress as to her best course. As a result of their deliberations, in the end of June she bade a tearful farewell to her family, a saucy good-bye to Eliphalet, and went off to the Adirondacks with a

high school teacher who was to coach her in return for her playing the lady's-maid.

In the autumn she came back, and on the strength of one year at Barham, her coaching and her Chautauqua diploma, she was allowed to enter the third year class in the Boston High School, having near-by lodgings with the widow of a Quaker store-keeper. Here she studied for two busy years, summers and all; till at last on one bright June day, dressed in a simple lawn dress, she walked up to the platform and bore off from it a long-looked for trophy, her diploma.

Almost all her frends were there and thronged about her with congratulations; and, joyful surprise, who should step up to speak to her but Mrs. Protheroe and Miss Margaret with a large basket of fruit and a bunch of flowers from the conservatory.

"When you see Mr. Auchmuty again, Miss Margaret, will you please tell him that what he said about the Chautauqua Reading Course one night at dinner is the cause that has produced this effect," and she indicated her diploma. "I was getting fearfully discouraged for I seemed to be unable to find any path that did not end in a dead wall, or any plan of studying that did not require time and money to carry it out. As long as I live I shall try to keep up with the Required Readings and if I cannot afford the books, I will keep up the habit with whatever comes to hand."

Then she thanked Mrs. Protheroe for all her kindness, took leave of her friends and walked home accompanied by a fellow-graduate and Eliphalet who carried the basket.

"Good-bye, Barbie. Guess you'd better go in for a course of learning to keep house now," said 'Liph at the gate when the other graduate had gone on.

"I am going to teach now," answered Barbara. It is woman's holiest vocation."

"And well paid."

"It is not the money, Eliphalet. It is the thought that I can inspire some soul to soar above its environment when it would otherwise grovel in the mire of this loamy universe," said Barbara, with a rapt expression, unconsciously culling from the graduates' essays.

"All right, my dear one," agreed Eliphalet. "Any time you want a pupil I'll do the soaring if you will keep on doing the inspiring. Here's the first golden seal for the course," and he caught her to him and kissed her.

"O, 'Liph!" she cried, pushing him away, with a dancing light in her eyes as she looked at the crushed roll in her hand, "You have done for my diploma!"

QUEEN SUMMER

By Edwin L. Sabin

The azure skies
Are her wonderful eyes.
The flood of the sun
Is her hair undone.
When the long grass dips
It is there she trips.
When the ripples quiver
She skims the river.
When murmur the leaves
They have touched her sleeves.
In the wildwood throats
We may catch her notes;
In the breeze, the bliss
Of her shy soft kiss.
Of the moth and the thrush,
Of the noontide hush,
Of the towering thunder
And the glad lea under,
Of the locusts' tune
And the fireflies' rune,
Of the day's hot light
And the musky night,
Of the blue and the green,
She is queen, she is queen.

KARL HILTY

Karl Hilty was born in Chur, Switzerland, in 1833. He became a student of philosophy and law at Göttingen, Heidelberg, London, and Paris. He then was an attorney in his native city, 1855-1874. Since 1874 he has been professor of national law at the University of Berne, is chief of the department of military justice, and since 1890 a member of the house of representatives. He became world renowned by his excellent work "Das Glück," in which he shows in the most charming (non-theological) language of our day the secret of true happiness. It is solid old Bible ethics which this eminent Christian scholar presents in a way which has secured him the attention of the German world. Professor Hilty is one of the leaders in the organized struggle against alcoholism in Switzerland. At present there is a bill of his introduction before the house of representatives in Berne, granting the right of local option to the cantons and municipalities of Switzerland. By his great literary and political influence he has been a rare blessing to his people and to the world.

PETRI KETTENFIER ROSEGGER

Petri Kettenfier Rosegger was born in Alpel, Steiermark, July 31, 1843, in a farm house. His mother, a Catholic, knew all the Bible stories, and innumerable legends, fairy tales, and songs by heart, and kindled her boy's imagination with them. His "mania" for reading was soon excelled by that for writing. He wrote "heaps" of stories (without any schooling except that of his mountain village) and with a brush he had made of his own hair illustrated almanacs that he had written. While a mere child he became the apprentice of a tailor, wandering with him from house to house over the mountains, making and mending clothes. But in time his rare literary talent came to the notice of friends who combined efforts to send him to a business college at Graz. From there he got such excellent testimonials as to his unusual literary knowledge and poetical talent that no business man dared to employ him. But soon his charming poetical publications in his native dialect opened the way for him and laid the German world at his feet. He is one of the very best popular writers the German world ever had, religious in his catholic way, charming, fascinating to the extreme, loved and admired by everybody. He built a new school house for his native village, and a fine church for the Protestants of Mürzzuschlag. In the sixty years of his life he has given the German people seventy books, every one a jewel of lasting beauty and value. He says, "I most firmly believe that fountain which incessantly springs from my pen is blood of my heart. You may think it water because it has been flowing over the world without ceasing these thirty years. But do not suppress the gush of my poetical veins for any length of time, else it will be my death. I have excused myself in former times for every new book I published. But he is a fool who excuses himself every year for the fact that he exists. For me to exist and to write poetry are identical."

A Native American Institution

By Hugo Münsterberg

From "The Americans," translated by Edwin B. Holt.

NOW, all this instruction of the child before he goes to school is much less significant and less widely disseminated than those thousandfold modes of instruction which are carried on for the development of men and women after they have passed their school days. Any one who knows this country will at once call to mind the innumerable courses of lectures, clubs of study, Chautauqua institutions, university extension courses, women's clubs, summer and correspondence schools, free scientific lectures, and many other such institutions which have developed here more plentifully than in any other country. After having dwelt on the kindergartens, one is somewhat tempted to think of these as men and women gardens. There is really some resemblance to a sort of intellectual garden, where no painful effort or hard work is laid out for the young men and women who wander there carelessly to pluck flowers. But it is, perhaps, rather too easy for the trained person to be unjust to such informal means of culture. It is really hard to view the latter in quite the right perspective. Whosoever has once freed himself from all prejudices, and looked carefully into the psychic life of the intellectual middle classes, will feel at once the incomparable value of these peculiar forms of intellectual stimulation, and their great significance for the self-perfection of the great masses.

While the kindergarten was imported from Germany, the university extension movement came from England. This movement, which was very popular about a decade ago, is decidedly now on the wane. Those forms of popular education which are distinctly American have shown themselves to possess the most vigor. There is one name which, above all others, is characteristic of these native institutions. It is Chautauqua. This is the old Indian name for a lake very pleasantly situated in the State of New York, about two hours by train from Buffalo. The name of the lake has gone over to the village on its banks, the name of the village has been carried over to the system of instruction which was first begun there, and now every institution is called Chautauquan which is modeled after that system. Even today the school at Chautauqua is the fountain-head of the whole movement. Every summer, and particularly through July and August, when the school-teachers have their vacation, some ten thousand men and women gather together to participate in a few weeks of recreation and intellectual stimulation. The life there is quiet and simple; concerts and lectures are given in the open air in an amphitheater which seats several thousand, and there are smaller classes of systematic instruction in all departments of learning. The teachers in special courses are mostly professors. The lecturers in the general gatherings are well-known politicians, officials, scholars, ministers, or otherwise distinguished personalities. For the sake of recreation, there are excursions, dramatic performances, and concerts. A few hours of systematic work every day serve as a stimulus for thought and culture, while the mutual influence of the men and women who are so brought together and the whole atmosphere of the place generate a real moral enthusiasm.

The special courses which range from Greek, the study of the Bible, and mathematics, to political economy, philosophy, and pedagogics, are supplemented on the one hand by examinations from which the participators get a certificate in black and white which is highly prized among teachers; and on the other side, by suggestions for the further carrying on by private reading of the studies which they have selected. The enthusiastic banner-

BISHOP JOHN H. VINCENT
Indianapolis, Indiana. Chancellor Chautauqua Institution.

DR. GEORGE E. VINCENT
Chicago, Illinois. Professor University of Chicago.

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bearer of Chautauqua is still today one of its founders, Bishop Vincent. He has done more than any one else toward bringing harmony into the monotonous and intellectually hungry lives of hundreds of thousands throughout the country, and especially of public school teachers. And in this work the instruction, the religious strengthening, the instillation of personal contentment, patriotic enthusiasm, esthetic joy in life, and moral inspiration, are not to be separated.

When Theodore Roosevelt, who was then the governor of New York, spoke in the Chautauqua amphitheater to more than ten thousand persons, he turned enthusiastically to Bishop Vincent and said, "I know of nothing in the whole country which is so filled with blessing for the nation." And when he had finished, the hole audience gave the Chautauqua te; ten thousand handkerchiefs were waved in the air—an extraordinary sight, which in Chautauqua signifies the greatest appreciation. This custom began years ago, when a deaf scholar had given a lecture, and while the thundering applause was sounding which the speaker himself could not hear, Bishop Vincent brought out this visible token of gratification; and this form of applause not only became a tradition there, but also spread to all other Chautauqua institutions throughout the country. Today there are more than three hundred of these, many of them in beautifully situated summer resorts, and some equipped with splendid libraries, banquet halls, casinos, and clubs. Some of these concentrate their energies in particular lines of learning, and of course they are very different in scope and merit. And nevertheless the fundamental trait of idealism shows through all these popular academies.

DR. W. H. HICKMAN

Jamestown, New York. Former Chancellor DePauw University.

CLEMENT STUDEBAKER

South Bend, Indiana. Treasurer of the Studebaker Bros. Mfg. Co.

CHAUTAUQUA INSTITUTION

Chautauqua Institution: A Permanent Educational Factor

By W. H. Hickman

EVERY educational institution that comes to a large permanent life, has to pass through a trial period. Its friends are not certain of its location, patronage, financial support and mission for civilization, till these things are thoroughly established. Then the larger life comes.

Chautauqua Institution, founded by Bishop John H. Vincent and Lewis Miller more than thirty years ago, has abundantly demonstrated its mission—by the wisdom of its location, the reach of its patronage, the strength of its financial support and the extent of its achievements.

The corporation has over two hundred acres of land and all the equipment for city and school. It has sidewalks, sewer system, water works, heating and lighting plants, telephone, telegraph and express offices, hotel accommodations and school buildings, some of which are constructed out of the most enduring material. There are about six hundred cottages on the grounds, belonging to private families. Many of them are constructed out of permanent material and some would rank among the best homes in cities. At least five hundred people spend the winter there. It is a rest city, a play-ground, a festival in the woods, a school house, a

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Akron, Ohio. Secretary of the Aultman-Miller Buckeye Co.

JOSEPH C. NEVILLE
Chicago, Illinois. Walworth & Neville Manufacturing Co.

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workshop, a center of Bible study and Christian enthusiasm, all in direct connection with the outside world by lake steamers, electric railways and trunk lines.

There are over two hundred Chautauquas scattered through the states and territories, modeled more or less after the original institution. They are all in country localities, for they do not flourish near great cities.

They take the great men of pulpit, platform and press, through the country; they take the best artists of song and public speech; the presidents of our universities, with their teachers; take the methods and matter of the college, domestic science for the home, arts and crafts for industrialism, to people of all classes. From them great teachers and leaders of the nation have a rare opportunity of addressing multitudes of people and of feeling the touch of inspiration and enthusiasm which comes from dealing with eager, appreciative, plastic intelligence. They realize that true America sits in the audiences which they address in July and August. The assemblies gathered together in this way are thus enabled to see and hear men of world wide reputation, leaders of the generations, whom they would never see or hear without seeking the opportunity by long travel and great expense. The people whose desire for instruction is thus stimulated, come to the higher institutions of learning in great numbers. They exert strong influences in the renewal and purifying and uplifting of city life. Chautauqua has cost them just enough to make them eager and alert to get the largest benefit from lectures and school associations.

Next to the public school, Chautauqua Institution, with its reading circle, its

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Toronto, Canada. President Massey-Harris Company.

FRANK W. HIGGINS
Albany, New York. Governor of the State of New York.

CHAUTAUQUA INSTITUTION

schools, platform, its civic and altruistic movements, is the most effective instrument in the country for advancing popular education. It offers special courses to Sunday school teachers; and at least twenty per cent of the money spent on the platform and schools, is for matter intended for ministers and Bible students. The normal department for school teachers alone has 2,300 teachers for four weeks, under men of national reputation as specialists in their several departments.

Dr. Gunsaulus, President of Armour Institute, stated that eighty-five per cent. of the recent sophomore class of his school attributed their awakening and subsequent registration at the institute to the Chautauqua assemblies in their neighborhoods. At least twenty of the most prominent ministers of Chicago came from localities where there were Chautauquas.

These statements would doubtless hold good in many of the great cities and schools of our land. The Chautauqua movement to the young manhood and young womanhood of the country is as a prophet calling for higher ideals and better preparation for the activities of life.

The Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Reading Circle is the pioneer and prototype of the thousands of reading circles, clubs and guilds now more or less federated in state and nation. Chautauqua Institution brings to the people through the C. L. S. C., selected matter prepared by the best authors. It gives them the "college outlook" in English, the elements of a liberal education. About fifty thousand have graduated from the four years' course required, and at least 285,000 people have taken more or less of the required reading. There are today at least twenty-five thousand readers of C. L. S. C. material—two thousand pages this year

T. N. ARNOLD
Ridgway, Pennsylvania. Capitalist.

WARREN F. WALWORTH
Cleveland, Ohio. Walworth & Neville Mfg. Company.

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of prepared matter in art, science, literature and history, put into four volumes, with collateral reading, supplemented and amplified by the monthly CHAUTAUQUAN magazine; and we know not how many thousands are reading parts of the Chautauqua course without reporting to us. Twenty minutes a day for four years will carry one through the reading course, which leads to a diploma.

The Chautauqua movement has taken root in Canada, South America, England, Australia, Japan, India, South Africa, Russia. Indeed, the movement is starting among all civilized peoples.

All the Chautauquans, at home and abroad, depend more or less upon the Chautauqua Institution for suggestions and formulation of new movements, guidance in practical life and inspiration for higher ideals. The time has come, there-
, when the institution must take on a
er life. The income from all reliable
sources is about $115,000 per year. Nearly all of this money is spent on the program and care of the institution. The trustees are planning its endowment. Its mission cannot be fulfilled from the resources of the gate fees, rents and commissions. It now has $65,000 in permanent endowment. It is not an organization for profit, but a benevolent and educational institution. There is no stock nor dividends, but all of its net earnings go to its expanding life. It is not sectarian, but pan-denominational and thoroughly Christian.

In Chautauqua Institution is offered a unique opportunity for gifts to help solve the problems of popular education—so vital in a democratic government and so necessary for the civilization of the world. There are thousands of people who would like to help make our civil institutions abiding, if they were sure such gifts would be sacredly guarded in the years to

GEORGE GREER
New Castle, Pennsylvania. District Manager American Sheet and Tin Plate Co.

WILLIAM J. CORNELL
Chautauqua, New York. Postmaster.

CHAUTAUQUA INSTITUTION

come. The trustees submit a plan for gifts to the endowment fund, in which they guarantee to the beneficiary the security of the gift.

Givers are divided into several classes:

The first is prepared to give in small or large sums, cash, with no further stipulation than that the principal of the gift should be kept in permanent endowment funds, and the interest used for the larger life of Chautauqua.

The second includes those who want to give now, but who are limited in circumstances so that they need to have some income on their money or property while they live. Chautauqua Institution will take such gifts, whether in property or cash, and pay a reasonable annuity on them. The guarantee of Chautauqua trustees is as good as that of a national bank.

The third are those who wish to give, but on account of circumstances are not able to give during their life time. The trustees have provided a bond whereby such benefactions may be received after death. It is simpler and safer than a will.

The fourth are other friends who desire to contribute cash to the permanent endowment fund, but who prefer to pay in installments. The endowment is made to suit the giver in small or greater sums.

The fifth are contributors who wish to give to permanent buildings and to name such buildings. The trustees will grant this privilege and will be glad to enter into correspondence on such cases.

MAKING A WILL

The following form of will should be used where the giver desires to leave the control of the money entirely to the trustees.

"I give and bequeath to Chautauqua Institution, of Chautauqua, New York, the sum of .....dollars."

Where the giver desires to have his

C. D. FIRESTONE
Columbus, Ohio. President of the Columbus Buggy Co.

WILLIAM THOMAS
Meadville, Pennsylvania. Banker and Manufacturer.

TRUSTEES OF

gift made a part of the Endowment Fund, the following form should be observed:

"I give and bequeath to Chautauqua Institution, of Chautauqua, New York, for the benefit and as a part of its Endowment Fund, the sum of ..... dollars."

NOTE.—In making a will, great care should be taken to have it conform to the laws of the state where it is executed.

All communications concerning endowments or permanent property, should be addressed to DR. W. H. HICKMAN, President of Trustees, Chautauqua, New York.

Summer Schools

By George E. Vincent

[From a monograph entitled "Summer Schools and University Extension," printed for the Department of Education, Universal Exposition, St. Louis, 1904.]

THE student of institutions is tempted to discover obscure origins and to trace beguiling analogies. Thus the Olympian festivals of ancient Greece, the philosophical schools of Athens, the medieval universities all have been suggested as remote foreshadowings of American summer schools. However fascinating the tracing of such parallels may be, the truth is that summer schools as they are known in the United States are the growth of practically the last thirty years. They have sprung up in response to varying demands and to meet widely different ends. They have passed gradually from an early or spontaneous stage into certain types and organization until they are recognized

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ELIOTT C. HALL
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CHAUTAUQUA INSTITUTION

as a part—although a somewhat unrelated part—of the educational system of the United States.

The specific demands which have called summer schools into being fall into certain groups. University teachers in supplementing their regular work have gathered students about them in the long vacation, and in later years the universities themselves have established summer instruction. Again, the need of better training for public school teachers has created not only institutes but also summer schools which prepare teachers for professional examinations, and in other ways afford means of advancement.

Furthermore, groups of people with common interests, schools of thought, societies for promoting reform and other organizations have deepened the loyalty of their members and carried on a propagandum by means of summer gatherings. So, too, individual teachers with their assistants have gone to the country to teach languages, music and art. Finally, religious bodies and educational institutions dominated by religious motives have played an important part in summer school enterprises.

These varied demands are today met by scores of institutions, some of which combine many different functions, while others are devoted to special purposes. By inevitable processes of experiment and imitation, uniformities have begun to appear, and the conventionalizing stage is already well advanced. Perhaps the most striking feature of this organizing movement has been the tendency to bring summer schools into closer relation with the institutions of higher education. Indeed, the summer school movement is only one aspect of that democratizing of the higher education which finds expression also in reading circles, in university extension, in the library movement, in social settlements

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Portville, New York. Lumber Merchant and Banker.

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and other agencies for bringing the intellectual, esthetic and moral resources of the few into the possession of the many.

THE GROWTH OF SUMMER SCHOOLS

If we take into account summer excursions undertaken by university professors of geology and biology in company with groups of students, we can push the beginnings of summer instruction into the first half of the nineteenth century. Thus, Professors Marsh and Dana of Yale, Professor Orton of Vassar, and Professor Agassiz of Harvard, were accustomed to take with them into the field small groups of their most promising students.

In 1869 summer instruction in geology was conducted in Cambridge under Harvard auspices. In connection with this work expeditions were made to western Massachusetts. In 1871 the Massachusetts institute of technology gave field instruction in metallurgy and mining in parts of New Jersey and Pennsylvania, while two years later Professor Lewis Agassiz opened his zoölogical laboratory on Penikese Island in Buzzards Bay. In 1874 the first Chautauqua assembly held a ten days' session on Chautauqua Lake in southwestern New York. This was destined to prove a center from which a peculiar type of summer institution has spread to all parts of the country. In 1876 Dr. Sauveur established at Amherst, Mass., a school of the specialized type designed to deal wholly with linguistic study, the chief stress being laid upon French and German, although the classical languages, as well as Italian and Spanish, were included in the curriculum. A year later the University of Virginia established summer teaching in chemistry, while during the same season an institution of the Chautauqua type was founded at Lakeside, Ohio, and in Chicago the first summer school of oratory was opened under the auspices of the Soper school. At Martha's Vineyard in 1878 the needs of public school teachers

FRANK M. POTTER

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Haverford, Pennsylvania. Oil Producer and Capitalist.

CHAUTAUQUA INSTITUTION

were first definitely provided for in a summer school of pedagogy. And during the same season three assemblies on the Chautauqua plan appeared in Indiana, Kansas and California. A summer gathering of a new kind was established at Concord, Mass., in 1879 by a group of men and women interested in the idealistic philosophy. For the next eight years few new schools were established. In 1887 the Harvard medical school established summer courses, and in 1888 a marine laboratory began its work at Wood's Holl, Mass. In 1889 the Massachusetts institute of technology offered summer courses in engineering. In 1890 a number of new institutions appeared in different parts of the country. The first natural science camp for boys was inaugurated on the shores of Canandaigua lake; the Shinnecock summer school of art began its work on Long Island; the Art academy of Cincinnati established summer instruction; the State university of Indiana offered summer courses at Bloomington; the Drake university of Des Moines, Iowa, announced a summer school of methods designed especially for school teachers; the Kansas state normal school at Emporia entered the same field; the Young Men's Christian Association held its first student conference at Lake Geneva, Wis., and another Chautauqua assembly appeared at Madison, S. D. The next year saw continued activity in the spread of summer institutes. Schools of methods were established in Boston and in Evanston, Ill. Hull House, the social settlement of Chicago, held its first summer school at Rockford, Ill., while at Grand Rapids, Mich., a summer school for kindergarten training was opened. During the same season the State university of Minnesota began to offer regular summer courses.

In 1892 the Catholic summer school of America announced lecture courses and classes. The school was held at Cliff

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CAPT. F. W. HYDE
Jamestown, New York. Cashier Chautauqua County Trust Company.

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Haven, N. Y. Clark university, at Worcester, Mass., and Ohio university, at Athens, joined the ranks of higher institutions providing higher instruction. The Y. M. C. A. held student conferences at Northfield, Mass., and at Asheville, N. C. In 1893 the number of centers for summer teaching multiplied rapidly. Teachers' institutes at Chautauqua assemblies were added to the list of summer schools. The University of Nebraska also opened its doors to vacation students. The season of 1894 saw new teachers' training schools established in Massachusetts, North Carolina and Colorado. The University of Michigan for the first time announced summer courses. The next year a summer theological seminary was opened at Newburgh, N. Y., while the most notable event of the season was the inauguration by the state of New York of two institutes for teachers, one at Chautauqua and the other at Thousand Island Park. During this season the University of Indiana set up a biological station on Winona Lake, Ind.; the Catholics announced a summer school at Detroit; the University of Michigan gave summer courses in law, and a school for library training was opened at Madison, Wis.

During the season of 1896 the New York State library gave instruction in library methods at Albany; a school of comparative religions was established at Elliot, Me., and the University of Illinois began to offer vacation courses. A year later the Jewish Chautauqua began its annual session at Atlantic City, N. J.

In 1898 the Cleveland summer school of library science held its first session. The next season the University of California adopted the summer school policy. In 1900 Columbia university, New York, and Cincinnati university opened their doors

A. M. SCHOYER

Pittsburg, Pennsylvania. General Superintendent Pennsylvania Lines.

S. FRED NIXON

Westfield, New York. Speaker New York State Assembly.

CHAUTAUQUA INSTITUTION

to summer students. The Brooklyn institute established a biological laboratory at Cold Spring Harbor. Throughout this entire period each year saw a number of Chautauqua assemblies founded in various parts of the country, and many more or less ephemeral schools of art, music, industrial training, etc., sprang up. The whole history of the movement serves to emphasize the fact already mentioned, that schools have developed in response to local needs and as a result of waves of imitation spreading from one end of the country to the other.

THE THEORY OF SUMMER SCHOOLS

It is characteristic of human nature to solve problems, to develop institutions and then to seek a reason for the thing that has been done. We have seen that summer schools sprang up in response to certain needs. It was inevitable that the conservative elements in the community should resist the new idea. At the beginning, college and university men were naturally skeptical concerning summer schools. Thirty years ago the democratic tendency in higher education was far less developed than it is today. The old aristocratic traditions were still dominant. The college professor and the college graduate were suspicious of popular education. These are some of the points which were raised against summer schools: they would encourage superficiality in education; would foster the idea that the higher education after all is comparatively a simple matter, and that a summer course would go far toward accomplishing the results achieved by a whole year of resident study. It was insisted that thousands of people would be induced merely to dabble in intellectual pursuits. This would beget in these ephemeral students a kind of arrogance which would be noth-

ing short of intellectual hypocrisy. In short, these brief courses would turn out vain and complacent persons who would not only be insincere themselves, but would bring true culture into disrepute.

Moreover, the critics feared that competent teachers could not be secured. Men engaged in university and college work throughout the year ought not to assume further burdens of teaching; those likely to be engaged for the work would be of the cheap and "popular" type, intellectual middlemen mediating between the university and the vulgar herd. Then, too, the majority of the students, school teachers, ought not to spend their time of rest in continued confinement to the class room. The long vacation was regarded as a time of sacred idleness, not to be employed in intellectual work of any kind. Still other critics who were not wholly unsympathetic, pointed out the dangers of unrelated summer study. The absence of a fixed curriculum, the application of the elective system without supervision, seemed to them to make for a kind of mental dissipation, a sort of intellectual "sloppiness," which could not fail to be a real menace. There were even a few who seemed to fear that by summer study many would be led to dispense with regular college courses, substituting vacation pursuits for the more serious and persistent academic work. Then there was, from certain supersensitive sources, a kind of sarcasm and ridicule heaped upon the whole idea.

In reply to these criticisms the advocates of the summer school movement urged that superficiality was at best a relative term, and that while summer study could not be expected in the main to make for profound scholarship, yet concentration upon a single pursuit for six weeks might result in distinct progress toward the mastery of many a subject. The evils of diffused effort were frankly recognized, and attempts were made to guard against the dangers involved. Much was made of the value of informal personal contact between students and teachers of strong individuality. It was asserted that summer schools so far from competing with the regular college courses, would popularize higher education and increase the number of college students. The important influence of social contact between students from various parts of the country was also urged. Then, too, it was insisted that in almost all summer schools there is a combination of study with recreation; that the conditions of summer study are so different from those of the winter work of teachers that under wise regulation summer school study may be made genuinely recreative. Moreover, the great national summer schools were described as "clearing houses of ideas" and "nerve centers" for the control of public opinion. Under these somewhat commercial or biological figures we have expressed the important truth that professional and intellectual enthusiasm are greatly stimulated and made more effective by such contact as the summer schools provide. Of late years more has been heard of the loss of time involved in the long vacation. It has been pointed out that this long vacation originally grew out of economic and social conditions which have been greatly modified; that it is not, therefore, a sacrosanct period which may not be encroached upon. Vacation schools for children, summer camps and other places for juvenile instruction are now common. These are but another form under which the summer school idea is finding recognition. On the whole, the critics have served a useful purpose in pointing out dangers which have existed and still lurk in summer schools, but experience has demonstrated that these objections are not valid, and that the dangers which they impute may be either avoided or minimized.

THE FUTURE OF SUMMER SCHOOLS

It is never safe to make prediction as to the future of human institutions. It is possible, however, to suggest the projection of a curve of tendency. The facts

seem to warrant the following general predictions:

1. The number of summer schools will not continue to increase rapidly. The statistics given by the University of the State of New York show a diminution in the number of schools reporting. In 1893 there were 105; in 1896, 251; in 1900, 105. If we except the multiplication of so-called Chautauqua assemblies of the local, commercial type, we shall find that the weaker schools are yielding to the competition of the larger and stronger institutions. The result seems likely to be that a few strong schools in each state will serve the purpose of summer instruction. This in itself is an encouraging sign.

2. There is undoubtedly a tendency to strengthen the teaching staffs in summer schools. Thus, at the universities an increasing number of professors of higher rank are taking the places which at first were filled almost exclusively by young instructors. In the case of summer schools not directly connected with universities, the practice is to secure stronger men, chiefly from well-known educational institutions.

3. Summer instruction tends to come more and more directly under the control of colleges and universities; that is, to be incorporated in the regular educational system of the country. The utilizing of the university plants, the economies of administration, etc., will inevitably lead to this result.

4. The state, notably in the middle west, may be expected to give increasing support to summer schools especially for public school teachers. Here, again, the summer institutes will be assimilated and incorporated into the normal school system.

5. It seems likely that the tendency to specialize which characterizes all modern movements will play a part in the development of summer schools. There is sufficient evidence at hand, some of which has already been cited, to show that certain schools and certain universities will offer unusually rich opportunities in some one subject or group of subjects, as, for example, the Cornell summer department of geography.

6. With the admission of history, art, expression, physical culture, to the list of college and university subjects, schools which deal especially with these departments will be drawn into closer relations with higher educational institutions.

7. In spite of this general tendency a few strong centers may be expected to persist as independent institutions, offering instruction under college and university auspices, maintaining religious exercises in close association with the leading churches and fostering a community life which shall have a distinctive and traditional value.

Above all, the one great tendency which seems to be revealed by facts of past and present is that toward a more intimate and direct relationship, organic or personal, between summer schools and the centers of higher education—the universities and the colleges.

CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY PROGRAM

Pres. Roosevelt.

Bishop Vincent.

Dr. Cadman.

Dr. Chapman.

THIRTY-SECOND ANNUAL ASSEMBLY

June 29 to August 27, 1905

LECTURERS

Theodore Roosevelt, President of the United States, Aug. 11.

Hon. Joseph W. Folk, Governor of Missouri, Aug. 23.

Hon. Wm. Travers Jerome, New York, Aug. 5.

Bishop John H. Vincent, Chancellor of Chautauqua, Aug. 13–18.

Miss Jane Addams, Hull House, Chicago, Aug. 16.

Dr. J. A. Babbitt, Haverford, Pa., July 8, 29.

Dr. Wm. Seaman Bainbridge, New York, July 15, 22. Aug. 12.

Judge D. P. Baldwin, Logansport, Ind., July 18, 20.

Prof. Andreas Baumgartner, Zurich, Switzerland, Aug. 1–4

Mr. Chas. Currier Beale, Boston, Aug. 15, 18.

Mr. Arthur E. Bestor, Chicago, July 3–7.

Mrs. Emily M. Bishop, New York City, July 22, Aug. 5.

Dr. Amory H. Bradford, Montclair, N. J., July 23–28.

Dr. H. O. Breeden, Des Moines, Iowa, July 14–16.

Rev. Frank Bristol, Washington, D. C., Aug. 26–27.

Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York, Aug. 7–11.

Dr. Richard Burton, New York, July 31–Aug. 4.

Dr. S. Parkes Cadman, Brooklyn, July 29, 30.

Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman, New York, Aug. 6–11.

Prof. S. H. Clark, University of Chicago, July 8.

Dr. Russell H. Conwell, Philadelphia, Aug. 19.

Mr. John Davey, Kent, Ohio, July 12.

Mr. Oliver Dyer, Boston, Aug. 18.

Miss Anna Edwards, Cleveland, July 17.

Mr. H. L. Elmendorf, Buffalo, July 21.

Mr. W. M. R. French, Chicago Art Institute, July 11–13.

Pres. Chas. Cuthbert Hall, Union Theological Seminary, Aug. 6–11.

Pres. G. Stanley Hall, Clark University, July 24–29.

Mr. Frances W. Halsey, New York City, Aug. 2.

Miss Ada Van Stone Harris, Rochester, N. Y., July 12.

Hon. Kendrick C. Hill, Trenton, N. J., Aug. 15.

Pres. Lincoln Hulley, John B. Stetson University, Florida, July 9, July 10–14, July 24–28.

Mr. K. S. Inui, Tokyo, Japan, July 18, 20.

Mr. Frederic Irland, Washington, D. C., Aug. 18.

CHAUTAUQUA INSTITUTION

Rev. Dana C. Johnson, Cincinnati, Aug. 24, 25.
Mr. Bruce G. Kingsley, New York City, July 24–27.
Prof. Cecil F. Lavell, Bates College, July 31–Aug. 4.
Mrs. Clara Z. Moore, New York City, July 15.
Dr. Mark Guy Pearse, London, July 16–21.
Mr. Benn Pitman, Cincinnati, Aug. 17.
Dr. F. D. Power, Washington, D. C., July 9–10.
Mr. Silas G. Pratt, New York City, July 28.
Prof. Jerome Raymond, University of Chicago, Aug. 8, 10.
Pres. Rush Rhees, Rochester Univ., June 30–31, July 1.
Prof. S. C. Schmucker, Westchester Normal School, July 31, Aug. 14–18.
Rev. Samuel Semple, Titusville, Pa., July 3–7.
Miss Marie L. Shedlock, London, Aug. 14, 15.
Prof. E. A. Steiner, Grinnell, Iowa, Aug. 21, 22, 23.
Miss Harriet Taylor, Aug. 9.
Prof. J. G. Carter Troop, University of Chicago, July 10–15
Mrs. E. M. Tyng, New York, June 30, July 5.
Prof. George E. Vincent, University of Chicago, July 1, 14, Aug. 14.
Mr. Leon H. Vincent, Boston, Aug. 20–26.
Hon. Robert Watchorn, U. S. Commissioner of Immigration, Aug. 19.
Mrs. Maria C. Weed, New York City, July 19.
Mr. W. Hinton White, Boston, July 20, 22.
Dean Chas. D. Williams, Cleveland, Aug. 20–25.

Governor Folk.

Judge Jerome.

Pres. C. C. Hall.

Pres. G. S. Hall.

READERS

Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker, New York, July 14, 17–21, Aug. 9
Mr. Charles Barnard, New York, Aug. 16.
Mrs. Isabel Garghill Beecher, Chicago, Aug. 23, 25.
Mrs. Emily M. Bishop, New York, July 10–14.
Mr. Percy H. Boynton, University of Chicago, July 3–7.
Prof. S. H. Clark, Univ. of Chicago, July 10, Aug. 3, 7–11.
Miss Lucine Finch, Chicago, Aug. 21–25.
Miss Anna R. Lazear, Pittsburg, June 29, July 1.
Prof. C. Edmund Neil, Univ. of West Virginia, July 4, 6.
Mr. Leland Powers, Boston, July 27, 29, 31.
Miss Marie L. Shedlock, London, Aug. 17.

Mr. Strong.

Miss Stender.

Miss Baldwin.

Mr. Croxton.

MUSICIANS

Miss Carrie A. Alchin, Cincinnati, ear training and pedagogy of music, July 10–Aug. 18.

Miss Adele Laes Baldwin, New York, contralto, July 2–30.

Mr. James Bird, Marietta, Ohio, harmony, July 10–Aug. 18.

Mr. Edward Calthrop, New York, tenor, Aug. 1–27.

Mrs. Alice Merritt Cochran, Brooklyn, soprano, July 2–30.

Miss Julia E. Crane, Potsdam, N. Y., Public School Music, July 10–Aug. 18.

Mr. Frank Croxton, New York, bass, Aug. 1–27.

Dr. Carl E. Dufft, New York, vocal instructor, July 8-Aug. 28.

Mrs. Carl E. Dufft, New York, voice, July 8–Aug. 27.

Mr. Alfred Hallam, New York, director of music, June 29–Aug. 27.

Miss Adah Hussey, New York, contralto, Aug. 1–27.

Mr. Bruce G. Kingsley, New York City, Lecturer, July 24–27.

Miss Georgia Kober, Chicago, piano, July 10–Aug. 18.

Mr. Sol. Marcosson, Cleveland, violinist, July 8–Aug. 18.

Mr. Silas G. Pratt, New York, Composer, July 28.

Mr. William H. Sherwood, Sherwood Music School, Chicago, concert pianist and composer, July 10–Aug. 18.

Dr. Percy J. Starnes, Albany Cathedral, Organist, 29–Aug. 27.

Miss Freida Stender, New York, soprano, Aug. 1–27.

Mr. Edward Strong, New York, tenor, July 2–30

Mrs. E. T. Tobey, Memphis, Tenn., piano, July 10–Aug. 18.

Mr. Henry B. Vincent, Erie Pa., assistant director of music

Mr. John T. Watkins, Scranton, Pa., voice.

Chautauqua Band and Orchestra, a well drilled organization of twenty-four pieces, under the direction of Mr. H. B. Vincent, playing both string and brass instruments, taking part in regular concerts, and giving daily twilight promenade concerts.

Children's Chorus, directed by Mr. Hallam, to be organized early in July.

The Grand Chorus, directed by Mr. Hallam, will be organized June 30, and drilled daily throughout the season.

The Guitar and Mandolin Club, directed by Mr. W. J. Kitchener, of New York.

Male Glee Club, directed by Mr. Hallam.

THE CLASSIFIED PROGRAM

SERMONS

July 2—President Rush Rhees, Rochester University, N. Y.
July 9—President Hulley, Stetson University, Florida.
July 16—Dr. Mark Guy Pearse, London.
July 23—Dr. Amory H. Bradford, Montclair, New Jersey.
July 30—Rev. S. Parkes Cadman, Brooklyn.
Aug. 6—Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman, New York City.
Aug. 13—Bishop John H. Vincent, Indianapolis, Indiana.
Aug. 20—Dean Charles D. Williams, Cleveland.
Aug. 27—Rev. Frank Bristol, Washington, D. C.

Dr. Pearse.

LECTURES

SOCIOLOGICAL AND HISTORICAL

Studies in American Diplomacy. July 3-7. Mr. Arthur E. Bestor. 1. Benjamin Franklin, the Colonial Diplomat. 2. George Washington and our Foreign Policy. 3. John Quincy Adams and the Monroe Doctrine. 4. The Diplomacy of the Civil War. 5. The United States as a World Power.

Our Neglected Boys. July 17. Miss Anna Edwards.

The Sick Man of Asia and His Doctors. July 18. **Japanese Progress.** July 20. Kiyo Sue Inui.

The Menace of Modern Mormonism. July 19. Mrs. Maria C. Weed.

The Story of the Sea—Its Ships and Sailors. July 20. **The Story of Australia Old and New.** July 22. W. Hinton White.

National Army Day Address—"Abraham Lincoln." July 29. Dr. S. Parkes Cadman.

Greek and Italian Types. July 31–Aug. 4. Prof. Cecil F. Lavell. 1. Ulysses. 2. Socrates. 3. Marcus Aurelius. 4. Three Early Churchmen. 5. Greek and Christian Art.

The History of the Swiss People. Aug. 2. Prof. Andreas Baumgartner.

The Indians of New York and Their Famous League. Aug. 2. Mr. Francis W. Halsey.

Address. Aug. 5. Hon. William Travers Jerome.

Peter the Great and His Successors. Aug. 7. Dr. J. M. Buckley.

Constantinople—Despotism and Disintegration. Aug. 8. **Russia—Autocracy and Revolution.** Aug. 10. Prof. Jerome Raymond.

Address. Friday, Aug. 11. Theodore Roosevelt, President of the United States.

Personal Glimpses of Celebrated Men and Women. Aug. 19. Dr. Russell H. Conwell.

Russia and Its Discontent. Aug. 21. **The Crisis in Judaism.** Aug 22. **The Trail of the Emigrant.** Aug. 23. Prof. E. A. Steiner.

Thomas Jefferson. Aug. 24. **The American Citizen.** Aug. 25. Rev. Dana C. Johnson.

The Hero and the Group. July 1. **The New Social Philosophy.** July 14. **The Psychology of the Crowd.** Aug. 14. Prof. Geo. E. Vincent.

Dr. Conwell.

Prof. Schmucker

Judge Baldwin.

Miss Addams.

Prof. Troop.

Dr. Baumgartne .

Miss Harris.

LITERARY

Nineteenth Century Novelists. July 10–15. Prof. J. G. Carter Troop. 1. Charles Dickens—Tragi-Comedy and Humanitarianism. 2. William Makepeace Thackeray—Satire and Criticism. 3. Nathaniel Hawthorne—Symbolism and Allegory. 4. George Eliot—Science and Philosophy. 5. Robert Louis Stevenson—The World of Play.

Matthew Arnold, The Poet of Doubt and Transition. July 18.

William Wordsworth, The Poet of Faith and Fruition. July 20. Judge D. P. Baldwin.

American Men of Letters. July 24–28. Pres. Lincoln Hulley. 1. Lanier, Poe and Other Poets of the South. 2. Holmes, the Yankee Poet-Humorist. 3. Dooley—His Fun and Philosophy. 4. Longfellow, the Poet of the Fireside.

Modern Masters of Literature. July 31–Aug. 5. Dr. Richard Burton. 1. Ruskin—A Preacher of Golden Tongue. 2. Emerson—A Home-spun Seer. 3. George Meredith—A Thinker in Fiction. 4. Browning—An Individualist in Verse. 5. Stevenson—A Gospeller of Romance.

The Hans Christian Andersen Centenary. Aug. 14. Miss Marie L. Shedlock.

The Romantic Movement in France in the Early Nineteenth Century. Aug. 21–26. Mr. Leon H. Vincent. 1. Beginnings of Romanticism: Chateaubriand and Madame de Stael. 2. Victor Hugo: Chief of the Romanticists. 3. Theophile Gautier the Historiographer Royal of the Movement. 4. Alexander Dumas and His Adventures. 5. George Sand.

PEDAGOGICAL AND SCIENTIFIC

The Boy and His Health. July 8. **The Boy and His Ethics.** July 29. Dr. James A. Babbitt.

The Greatest Need in Education. July 8. Prof. S. H. Clark.

The School of Yesterday and Today. July 12. Miss Ada Van Stone Harris.

Our Wounded Friends, the Trees. July 12. Mr. John Davey.

The Growing Child. July 15 and July 22nd. **The Common Disease of Avenue and Alley.** Aug. 12. Dr. Wm. Seaman Bainbridge.

The Twentieth Century Library. July 21. Mr H. L. Elmendorf.

The Swiss Schools in the Light of Pestalozzi's Principles. Aug. 1. **Popular Education in Switzerland.** Aug. 3. **The Language of the Swiss.** Aug. 4. Prof. Andreas Baumgartner.

The Psychology of an Audience. Aug. 8. Dr. J. M. Buckley.

Recognition Day Address. "Work and Play as Factors in Education." Aug. 16. Miss Jane Addams.

A Robber Family. July 31. Prof. S. C. Schmucker. **Nature Study.** Series: 1. A Master Mind. 2. His Master Idea. 3. What a Chicken Can Teach Us. 4. An Evolutionist's Faith. Aug. 14-18

The Value of Fairy Tales in Education. Aug. 15. Miss Marie L. Shedlock.

RELIGIOUS

Devotional Hours. July 3–8. **Rev. Samuel Semple.** 1. Jesus Testimony to John. 2. John's Testimony to Jesus. 3. The Baptism of John and the Baptism of Jesus. 4 John and Herod. 5. The Hour of Trial and the Triumph of Faith. July 10–15. **Pres. Lincoln Hulley.** 1. Christ's Valuation of a Man. 2. Christ's Mission to Men. 3 Christ's Pattern for Men. 4. Christ's Life in Men. 5. Christ's Appeal to Men. July 17–22. **Rev. Mark Guy Pearse.** July 24–29. **Dr. Amory H. Bradford.** 1. The Inward Light. 2. The Inward Sinai. 3. The Inward Calvary. 4. The Ultimate Standard. 5. Spiritual Leadership. July 31–Aug. 5. Aug. 7–12. **Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman.** Aug. 14–19. **Bishop John H. Vincent.** 1. The Life of Duty. 2. The Life of Faith. 3. The Life of Joy. 4. The Life of Service. Aug. 21–26. **Dean C. D. Williams.** 1. Four Ways of Loving God. 2 Two Ways of Loving the Neighbor. 3. Being a Christian in the Present Day. 4. The Human Cost of Life. 5. The Valley of Baca.

Mr. Clark.

Miss Shedlock.

Religious Lectures. July 24–29. **Pres. G. Stanley Hall.** **The Psychology of Jesus:** 1. Jesus' Physical Personality and Traits of Character. 2. His Messianity and Sonship. 3. His Debt to the Past and His Use of the Future. 4 His Death and Its Effects. 5. His Positive Teachings.

Basic Religious Principles. Aug. 7–12. **Pres. Charles Cuthbert Hall.** 1. The Vitalizing of Religious Thinking. 2. The Reasonableness of Faith. 3. Prayer. 4. The Unity of the Human Race. 5. The Person of Christ.

Miss Lasear.

Bible Studies. Nine o'clock each Sunday morning.

Sunday Schools at three P. M. For adults, **Convocation** in the Amphitheatre; **Intermediate** in Higgins Hall; **Primary** in Normal Hall; **Kindergarten** in Kellogg Hall.

C L. S. C. Vesper Service at five P. M. each Sunday

Religious Music. Oratorio. "The Redemption," July 21; oratorio, "The Messiah," July 24; oratorio, "The Prodigal Son," July 25; oratorio, "Elijah," Aug. 7. Sacred Song Service in the Amphitheatre every Sunday evening.

Mr. Powers

Supplementary Courses in the Summer Schools. **The Four Gospels.** July 10–28. Pres. Lincoln Hulley. **Sunday School Teachers' Bible Class.** Aug. 1–16; **The Sunday School Normal Class,** Aug. 1–16; **A Course of Bible Stories,** selected dates between Aug. 1–16; **Four Addresses on Palestine,** between Aug. 1 and 16; Dr. Jesse L. Hurlbut. **Psychology and Method in Sunday School Work,** July 31–Aug. 11; **Advanced Courses in Method,** July 31–Aug. 11; Dr. Marianna C. Brown.

MUSIC

July 3–8. Two Concerts and a Quartet Song Cycle.
July 10–14. One Grand Concert and Opera Score, Pirates of Penzance.
July 17–22. Two Grand Concerts and Oratorio, The Redemption.
July 23–29. Music Week: July 23, Rossini's Stabat Mater; July 24, The Messiah; July 25, The Prodigal Son; July 26, Miscellaneous Concert; July 28, Silas G. Pratt's America; July 29, National Army Day, Patriotic Concert.
July 30–Aug. 5. Popular Concert and Opera Score Martha.
Aug. 14–19. Two Popular Concerts and two presentations of the Opera Score, The Mikado.
Aug. 21–26. Two Popular Concerts.

The Grand Concerts, usually on Monday evening, Wednesday afternoon and Friday evening, are participated in by the Chautauqua Chorus, whose enrollment in mid-season reaches 500, the Chautauqua Orchestra of 20 pieces, and by well-known soloists. Mr. Alfred Hallam is Director; Mr. H. B. Vincent, Assistant Director.

Open Air Band Concerts occur on all week days between July 13 and Aug. 26.

Organ Recitals by Dr. Percy J. Starnes and his pupils frequently.

Sacred Song Services in the amphitheater at 7.45 on Sunday evenings.

Artists' Recitals. a. Seven piano and violin recitals by Messrs. Sherwood and Marcosson, Monday afternoons in Higgins' Hall. b. Six vocal recitals by Dr. Carl E. Dufft, Thursday afternoon in Higgins' Hall. A fee is charged.

READINGS AND ENTERTAINMENTS

SINGLE RECITALS

The Taming of the Shrew. June 29 The White Cowl and Other Stories. July 1. Miss Anna Rhinehart Lazear.

Lord Chumley. July 4. Captain Lettarblair. July 6. Prof. C. Edmund Neil.

Ulysses. July 10. Dramatic Recital. Aug. 3. Prof. S. H. Clark.

Bleak House. July 27. Taming of the Shrew. July 29. David Copperfield. July 31. Mr. Leland Powers.

Peer Gynt. July 14. The Hour Glass. Aug. 9.
Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker.

The County Fair. Aug. 16. Mr. Charles Barnard.

Readings from Modern English Humorists. Aug. 17. Miss Marie L. Shedlock.

Much Ado about Nothing. Aug. 23 An Evening of American Fiction. Aug 25. Mrs. Isabel Garghill Beecher.

READING HOURS

July 3– 7. Mr. Percy H. Boynton.
July 10–14. Mrs. Emily M. Bishop.
July 17–21. Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker.
Aug. 7–11. Prof. S. H. Clark.
Aug. 21–25. Miss Lucine Finch.

ANNUAL EVENTS AND ENTERTAINMENTS

Formal Opening of the Assembly. June 29.

Summer Schools Reception for Faculty and Students. July 8.

Annual Prize Spelling Match. July 18.

Annual Gymnastic Exhibition. July 19.

Children's Festival. American Boy Day. July 22.

Annual Track and Field Meet. Field Day. July 28.

Old First Night Exercises. August 1.

Annual Aquatic Day. Aug. 12.

Annual Question Box. Dr. J. M. Buckley. Aug. 11.

Promenade Concert and C. L. S. C. Receptions. Aug. 15.

Recognition Day Exercises throughout Aug. 16.

Annual Illuminated Fleet. Aug. 18.

Grange Day Platform Exercises. Aug. 19.

Semi-Weekly Baseball Games.

Annual Tennis Tournament in August.

A Concert Audience in the Amphitheatre.

PROGRAM FOR 1905

THURSDAY, JUNE 29

OPENING DAY.

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour.
11.00 A. M. Organ Recital: Dr. Percy J. Starnes.
2.30 P. M. Formal Opening of Assembly of 1905: Address: Bishop John H. Vincent.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour.
8.00 P. M. Reading: "The Taming of the Shrew." Miss A. R. Lazear.
9.30 P. M. Lighting Chautauqua Signal Fires Around the Lake.

FRIDAY, JUNE 30

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour.
11.00 A. M. Organ Recital: Dr. Percy J. Starnes.
2.30 P. M. Lecture. Pres. Rhees.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour.
8.00 P. M. Illustrated Lecture: Mrs. Emma Moffett Tyng.

SATURDAY, JULY 1

11.00 A. M. Vocal Recital. Dr. Carl E. Dufft.
2.30 P. M. Popular Address: "The Hero and the Group." Prof. George E. Vincent.
8.00 P. M. Reading: "The White Cowl and Other Stories." Miss A. R. Lazear.

SUNDAY, JULY 2

10.00 A. M. Bible Study.
11.00 A. M. Sermon. Pres. Rhees.
3.00 P. M. Assembly Convocation.
5.00 P. M. C. L. S. C. Vesper Service.
7.45 P. M. Sacred Song Service.

MONDAY, JULY 3

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour: "Jesus' Testimony to John. Rev. Samuel Semple.
11.00 A. M. Lecture: Studies in American Diplomacy I, "Benjamin Franklin, the Colonial Diplomat." Mr. Arthur E. Bestor.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour: Arthurian Knights I., "Percival" from the Old Welsh. Mr. Percy H. Boynton.
8.00 P. M. Opening Concert. Soloists, July 2–30: Mrs. Alice Merritt Cochran, soprano; Miss Adele Laes Baldwin, Contralto; Mr. Edward Strong, Tenor. Appearing throughout the season: Dr. Percy J. Starnes, Organist; Mr. Henry B. Vincent, Assistant Director of Music; Mr. Alfred Hallam, Director.

TUESDAY, JULY 4

10.00 A. M. **Devotional Hour:** "John's Testimony to Jesus." Rev. Samuel Semple.
11.00 A. M. **Lecture. American Diplomacy II,** "George Washington and our Foreign Policy." Mr. A. E. Bestor.
2.30 P. M. **Independence Day Exercises.**
5.00 P. M. **Reading Hour:** Arthurian Knights II, "Gawain," from the Early English. Mr. Percy H. Boynton.
8.00 P. M. **Reading:** "Lord Chumley." Prof. Edmund C. Neil.
Fire Works. Lake Front.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 5

10.00 A. M. **Devotional Hour.** "The Baptism of John and the Baptism of Jesus." Rev. Samuel Semple.
11.00 A. M. **Lecture. American Diplomacy III,** "John Quincy Adams and the Monroe Doctrine." Mr. A. E. Bestor.
2.30 P. M. **Concert.** Song Cycle for Quartette.
5.00 P. M. **Reading Hour.** Arthurian Knights III. "Tristan," from the German. Mr. Percy H. Boynton.
8.00 P. M. **Illustrated Lecture.** "The Holy Grail." Mrs. Emma Moffett Tyng.

THURSDAY, JULY 6

10.00 A. M. **Devotional Hour.** "John and Herod." Rev. Samuel Semple.
11.00 A. M. **Lecture. American Diplomacy IV,** "The Diplomacy of the Civil War." Mr. A. E. Bestor.
2.30 P. M. **Popular Lecture.**
5.00 P. M. **Reading Hour.** Arthurian Knights IV. "Launcelot", from the Early English. Mr. Percy H. Boynton.
8.00 P. M. **Reading.** "Captain Lettarblair." Prof. C. Edmund Neil.

FRIDAY, JULY 7

10.00 A. M. **Devotional Hour.** "The Hour of Trial and the Triumph of Faith." Rev. Samuel Semple.
11.00 A. M. **Lecture. American Diplomacy V,** "The United States as a World Power." Mr. A. E. Bestor.
2.30 P. M. **Popular Lecture.**
5.00 P. M. **Reading Hour.** Arthurian Knights. V. "Arthur," from the Early English. Mr. Percy H. Boynton.
8.00 P. M. **Concert.** Chautauqua Soloists and Choir. Mr. Alfred Hallam, Director.

SATURDAY, JULY 8

OPENING OF SUMMER SCHOOLS.

10.00 A. M. **Lecture.** "The Boy and His Health." Dr. J. A. Babbitt.
11.00 A. M. **Opening of the Schools** Prof. Geo. E. Vincent, Principal of Instruction.
2.30 P. M. **Address** "The Greatest Need in Education." Prof. S. H. Clark.
6.00 P. M. **Annual Supper to Faculty of the Summer Schools.** Hotel Athenæum.
8.00 P. M. **Reception to Faculty and Students of the Summer Schools.** Hotel Athenæum.

SUNDAY, JULY 9

9.00 A. M. **Bible Study.**
11.00 A. M. **Sermon.** President Lincoln Hulley.
3.00 P. M. **Assembly Convocation and Intermediate, Primary and Kindergarten Sunday Schools.**
5.00 P. M. **C. L. S. C. Vesper Service.**
7.45 P. M **Sacred Song Service.**

Approach to the New Hall of Philosophy.

MONDAY, JULY 10

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. I "Christ's Valuation of a Man." Pres. Lincoln Hulley.
11.00 A. M. Popular Lecture. Dr. F. D. Power. "Block Heads."
2.30 P. M. Lecture. XIXth Century Novelists: I. "Charles Dickens—Tragi–Comedy and Humanitarianism." Prof. J. G. Carter Troop.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour I. "A Passport to Paradise," and Other Stories. Mrs. Emily M. Bishop.
8.00 P. M. Recital. "Ulysses." Prof. S. H. Clark.

TUESDAY, JULY 11

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. II. "Christ's Mission to Men." Dr. Hulley.
11.00 A. M. Popular Lecture. The School of Yesterday and Today." Miss Ada Van Stone Harris.
2.30 P. M. Lecture. II. "William Makepeace Thackeray—Satire and Criticism." Prof. Troop.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. II. "A Japanese Story." Mrs. Bishop.
8.00 P. M. Chalk Talk. "Wit and Wisdom of the Crayon." Mr. W. M. R. French.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 12

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. III. "Christ's Pattern for Men." Dr. Hulley.
11.00 A. M. Popular Lecture. III. "Nathaniel Hawthorne—Symbolism and Allegory."
2.30 P. M. Popular Concert.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. III. "A Chinese Story." Mrs. Bishop.
8.00 P. M. Illustrated Lecture. "Our Wounded Friends—the Trees." Mr. John Davey.

THURSDAY, JULY 13

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. IV. "Christ's Life in Men." Dr. Hulley.
11.00 A. M. Popular Lecture. Dr. H. O. Breeden.
2.30 P. M. Lecture. IV. "Geo. Eliot —Science and Philosophy." Prof. Troop.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. IV. Selections from "Jewel," by Clara Louise Burnham. Mrs. Bishop.
7.00 P. M. Open Air Band Concert.
8.00 P. M. Chalk Talk. "The Value of a Line." Mr. W. M. R. French.

FRIDAY, JULY 14

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. V. "Christ's Appeal to Men." Dr. Hulley.
11.00 A. M. Popular Address.
2.30 P. M. Lecture. V. "Robert Louis Stevenson—The World of Play." Prof. Troop.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. V. "Jonathan and David," by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps. Mrs. Bishop.
8.00 P. M. Reading. "Peer Gynt," by Hendrik Ibsen. Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker.

SATURDAY, JULY 15

10.00 A. M. Lecture. "The Growing Child. No. 1. Dr. Wm. Seaman Bainbridge.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. Mrs. Clara Z. Moore.
2.30 P. M. Address.
8.00 P. M. Concert. Score of the Gilbert and Sullivan Opera. "Pirates of Penzance." Chautauqua Soloists, Orchestra and Choir Mr. Alfred Hallam, Director.

SUNDAY, JULY 16

10.00 A. M. Bible Study.
11.00 A. M. Sermon. Rev. Mark Guy Pearse.
3.00 P. M. Assembly Convocation and Intermediate, Primary and Kindergarten Sunday Schools.
5.00 P. M. C. L. S. C. Vesper Service.
7.45 P. M. Sacred Song Service.

MONDAY, JULY 17

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. Rev. Mark Guy Pearse.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. "Our Neglected Boys." Miss Anna Edwards.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. "Some Old Folks at Home." Rev. Mark Guy Pearse.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. "Classic Comedies" I. Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker.
8.00 P. M. Concert. Chautauqua Soloists, Choir and Orchestra.

TUESDAY, JULY 18

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. Rev. M. G. Pearse.
11.00 A. M. Popular Lecture. "Matthew Arnold, the Poet of Doubt and Transition." Judge D. P. Baldwin.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. "The Sick Man of Asia and His Doctors." Mr. Kyo Sui Inui.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. "Classic Comedies" II. Mrs. Baker.
7.00 P. M. Open Air Band Concert.
8.00 P. M. Annual Prize Spelling Match.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 19

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. Rev. M. G. Pearse.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. "The Menace of Modern Mormonism." Mrs. Maria C. Weed.
2.30 P. M. Popular Concert.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. "Classic Comedies" III. Mrs. Baker.
8.00 P. M. Annual Gymnastic Exhibition.

THURSDAY, JULY 20

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. Rev. M. G. Pearse.
11.00 A. M. Popular Lecture. "William Wordsworth, the Poet of Faith and Fruition." Judge D. P. Baldwin.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. "Japanese Progress." Mr. K. S. Inui.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. "Classic Comedies" IV. Mrs. Baker.
7.00 P. M. Open Air Band Concert.
8.00 P. M. Illustrated Lecture. "The Story of the Sea—Its Ships and Sailors." Mr. W. Hinton White.

FRIDAY, JULY 21

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. Rev. M. G. Pearse.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. "The Twentieth Century Library." Mr. H. L. Elmendorf.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. "West Country Sketches." Rev. Mark Guy Pearse.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. "Classic Comedies" V. Mrs. Baker.
8.00 P. M. Concert. Oratorio, "The Redemption." The Chautauqua Soloists, Orchestra and Chorus. Mr. Alfred Hallam Conductor.

SATURDAY, JULY 22

AMERICAN BOY DAY

9.00 A. M. Lecture. "The Growing Child." Dr. Wm. S. Bainbridge.
10.00 A. M. Lecture. Mrs. Bishop. American Boy Patriotic Program.
1.30 P. M. American Boy Day Exercises.
2.30 P. M. Children's Festival. Special Program for Children's Sunday School Chorus, in Music Distributed and Practiced in Advance. Mr. Hallam, Conducting.
8.00 P. M. Illustrated Lecture. "The Story of Australia, Old and New." Mr. W. Hinton White.

MUSIC WEEK

SUNDAY, JULY 23

9.00 A. M. Bible Study.
11.00 A. M. Sermon. Dr. Amory H. Bradford.
3.00 P. M. Assembly Convocation and Intermediate, Primary and Kindergarten Sunday Schools.
5.00 P. M. C. L. S. C. Vesper Service.
7.45 P. M. Sacred Song Service. Rossini's "Stabat Mater."

MONDAY, JULY 24

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. I. "The Inward Light." Dr. Amory H. Bradford.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. "Modern Masters of Music I. Schumann." Mr. Bruce Gordon Kingsley
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. "The Psychology of Jesus." I. "Jesus' Physical Personality and Traits of Character." Pres. G. Stanley Hall.
5.00 P. M. Lecture Recital. I. "Lanier, Poe and other Poets of the South." Pres. Lincoln Hulley.
8.00 P. M. Concert. The Oratorio, "The Messiah." Chautauqua Soloists, Orchestra and Chorus. Mr. Alfred Hallam, Conductor.

TUESDAY, JULY 25

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. II. "The Inward Sinai." Dr. Amory H. Bradford.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. "Modern Masters II. Chopin." Mr. Kingsley.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. "The Psychology of Jesus." II. "His Messianity and Sonship." President Hall.
5.00 P. M. Lecture Recital. II. "Holmes; The Yankee Poet-Humorist." President Hulley.
8.00 P. M. Concert. Oratorio, "The Prodigal Son."

WEDNESDAY, JULY 26

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. III. "The Inward Calvary." Dr. Amory H. Bradford.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. "Modern Masters III. Liszt." Mr. Kingsley.
2.30 P. M. Concert.
5.00 P. M. Lecture Recital. III. "Dooley; His Fun and Philosophy." President Hulley.
8.00 P. M. Miscellaneous Concert.

THURSDAY, JULY 27

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. IV. "The Ultimate Standard." Dr. Amory H. Bradford.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. "Modern Masters IV. Wagner." Mr. Kingsley.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. "The Psychology of Jesus." III. "His Debt to the Past and His Use of the Future." President Hall.
5.00 P. M. Lecture Recital. IV. "Longfellow; The Poet of the Fireside." President Hulley.
7.00 P. M. Open Air Band Concert.
8.00 P. M. Reading. "Bleak House." Mr. Leland Powers.

FRIDAY, JULY 28

FIELD DAY

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. V. "Spiritual Leadership." Dr. Amory H. Bradford.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. Mr. Silas G. Pratt.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. "The Psychology of Jesus." IV. "His Death and Its Psychological Effects." President Hall.
5.00 P. M. Lecture Recital. V. "Browning; The Artist in Poetry." President Hulley.
8.00 P. M. Concert. Silas G. Pratt's Music Drama, "America."

SATURDAY, JULY 29

NATIONAL ARMY DAY

10.00 A. M. Lecture. "The Boy and His Ethics." Dr. James A. Babbitt.
11.00 A. M. Patriotic Concert.
11.00 A. M. Popular Lecture. "The Psychology of Jesus; His Positive Teachings." President Hall.
2.30 P. M. National Army Day Address. "Abraham Lincoln." Rev. S. Parkes Cadman.
8.00 P. M. Reading. "Taming of the Shrew." Mr. Leland Powers.

HOME READING WEEK

SUNDAY, JULY 30

10.00 A. M. Bible Study.
11.00 A. M. Sermon. Rev. S. Parkes Cadman.
3.00 P. M. Assembly Convocation and Intermediate, Primary and Kindergarten Sunday Schools.
5.00 P. M. C. L. S. C. Vesper Services.
7.45 P. M. Sacred Song Service.

MONDAY, JULY 31

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. I.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. Greek and Italian Types. I. "Ulysses." Prof. Cecil F. Lavell.
2.30 P. M. Modern Masters of Literature. I. "Ruskin—A Preacher of Golden Tongue." Dr. Richard Burton.
5.00 P. M. Popular Lecture. "A Robber Family." Prof. S. C. Schmucker.
8.00 P. M. Reading. "David Copperfield." Mr. Leland Powers.

TUESDAY, AUGUST 1

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. II.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. II. "Socrates." Prof. Lavell.
2.30 P. M. Modern Masters. II. "Emerson—The Home-Spun Seer." Dr. Burton.
5.00 P. M. Popular Lecture. "The Swiss Schools in the Light of Pestalozzi's Principles." Prof. Andreas Baumgartner.
7.00 P. M. Open Air Band Concert.
8.00 P. M. Old First Night Exercises. Anniversary of the opening of the original Assembly. Short addresses, the annual roll and Chautauqua songs.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 2

DENOMINATIONAL DAY

10.00 A. M. **Devotional Hour. III.**
11.00 A. M. **Lecture. III. "Marcus Aurelius." Prof. Lavell.**
1.00 P. M. **Denominational Congresses.**
2.30 P. M. **Concert. Soloists, Aug. 1–27, Miss Frieda Stender, Soprano; Miss Ada Hussey, Contralto; Mr. Edward Calthrop, Tenor; Mr. Frank Croxton, Bass. Chautauqua Orchestra.**
5.00 P. M. **Popular Lecture. "The History of the Swiss People." Prof. Baumgartner.**
8.00 P. M. **Illustrated Lecture. "The Indians of New York and Their Famous League." Mr. Francis W. Halsey.**

THURSDAY, AUGUST 3

RALLYING DAY

10.00 A. M. **Devotional Hour. IV.**
11.00 A. M. **Rallying Day Exercises.**
2.30 P. M. **Modern Masters. III. "George Meredith—A Thinker in Fiction." Dr. Burton.**
4.00 P. M. **Lecture. IV. "Three Churchmen: St. Augustine, Hildebrand and Leo X." Prof. Lavell.**
4.30 P. M. **C. L. S. C. Reception in St. Paul's Grove.**
5.00 P. M. **Popular Lecture. "Popular Education in Switzerland." Prof. Baumgartner.**
7.00 P. M. **Open Air Band Concert.**
8.00 P. M. **Dramatic Recital. Prof. S. H. Clark.**

FRIDAY, AUGUST 4

10.00 A. M. **Devotional Hour. V.**
11.00 A. M. **Lecture. V. "Greek and Christian Art." Prof. Lavell.**
2.30 P. M. **Modern Masters. IV. "Browning—An Individualist in Verse." Dr. Burton.**
5.00 P. M. **Popular Lecture. "The Language of the Swiss." Prof. Baumgartner.**
8.00 P. M **Popular Lecture. "A Tour through Switzerland." Illustrated. Prof. Baumgartner.**

SATURDAY, AUGUST 5

10.00 A. M. **Lecture. Mrs. Emily M. Bishop.**
11.00 A. M. **Modern Masters. V. "Stevenson—A Gospeller of Romance." Dr. Burton.**
2.30 P. M. **Address. Hon. William Travers Jerome.**
8.00 P. M. **Children's Operetta. "Cinderella. Chautauqua Children's Chorus and Chautauqua Orchestra. Mr. Alfred Hallam, Conductor.**

BIBLE WEEK

SUNDAY, AUGUST 6

10.00 A. M. **Bible Study.**
11.00 A. M. **Sermon. Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman.**
3.00 P. M. **Assembly Convocation and Intermediate, Primary and Kindergarten Sunday Schools.**
5.00 P. M. **C. L. S. C. Vesper Service.**
7.45 P. M. **Lecture. "Experiences in India." Pres. Charles Cuthbert Hall.**

MONDAY, AUGUST 7

10.00 A. M. **Devotional Hour. I.. Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman.**
11.00 A. M. **Lecture. I. "The Vitalizing of Religious Thinking." Pres. Chas. Cuthbert Hall.**
2.30 P. M. **Popular Lecture. "Peter the Great and His Successors." Dr. J. M. Buckley.**
4.00 P. M. **Ministerial Conference. Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman, Leader.**
4.00 P. M. **Missionary Conference under Auspices of Women's Board of Foreign Missions.**
5.00 P. M. **Reading Hour. The Scarlet Letter. I. "The Market Place." Prof. S. H. Clark.**
8.00 P. M. **Concert. Oratorio, "Elijah." Chautauqua Soloists, Orchestra and Choir. Mr. Alfred Hallam, Director.**

TUESDAY, AUGUST 8

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. II. Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. II. "The Reasonableness of Faith." Pres. C. C. Hall.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. "The Psychology of an Audience." Dr. J. M. Buckley.
4.00 P. M. Ministerial Conference. Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman, Leader.
4.00 P. M. Missionary Conference.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. The Scarlet Letter II. "The Leech and His Patient." Prof. Clark.
8.00 P. M. Popular Illustrated Lecture. "Constantinople: Despotism and Disintegration." Prof. Jerome Raymond.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 9

ASSOCIATION DAY

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. III. Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. III. "Prayer." Pres. C. C. Hall.
2.30 P. M. Young Women's Christian Association. Platform Meeting. Addresses.
4.00 P. M. Ministerial Conference. Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman, Leader
4.00 P. M. Missionary Conference.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. The Scarlet Letter III. "The Minister's Vigil." Prof. Clark.
8.00 P. M. Reading. "The Hour Glass." By W. B. Yeats. Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 10

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. IV. Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. IV. "The Unity of the Human Race." Pres. C. C. Hall.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. "The Seven Mistakes of a Well-Meaning Young Man." Dr. J. M. Buckley.
4.00 P. M. Ministerial Conference. Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman.
4.00 P. M. Missionary Conference.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. The Scarlet Letter IV. "The Pastor and His Parishioners." Prof. Clark.
8.00 P. M. Popular Illustrated Lecture. "Russia: Autocracy and Revolution." Prof. Jerome Raymond.

FRIDAY, AUGUST 11

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. V. Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. V. "The Person of Christ." Pres. C. C. Hall.
2.30 P. M. Address—Theodore Roosevelt, President of the United States.
4.00 P. M. Ministerial Conference. Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman, Leader.
4.00 P. M. Missionary Conference.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. The Scarlet Letter V. "The Revelation of the Scarlet Letter." Prof. Clark.
7.00 P. M. Open Air Band Concert.
8.00 P. M. Annual Question Box. Dr. J. M. Buckley.

SATURDAY, AUGUST 12

AQUATIC DAY.

10.00 A. M. Lecture. "The Common Disease of Avenue and Alley." Dr. Wm. Seaman Bainbridge.
11.00 A. M. Regatta, Yacht and Canoe Races. Swimming and Diving Contests.
2.30 P. M. Popular Concert.
8.00 P. M. Concert Opera Score. "Martha." Chautauqua Soloists, Orchestra and Chorus. Mr. Alfred Hallam, Conductor.

RECOGNITION WEEK

SUNDAY, AUGUST 13

10.00 A. M. Bible Study.
11.00 A. M. Sermon. Bishop John H. Vincent.
3.00 P. M. Assembly Convocation and Intermediate, Primary and Kindergarten Sunday Schools.
5.00 P. M. C. L. S. C. Vesper Service.
7.45 P. M. Sacred Song Service.

MONDAY, AUGUST 14

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. I. "The Life of Duty." Bishop John H. Vincent.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. "The Psychology of the Crowd." Prof. Geo. E. Vincent.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. I. "A Master Mind." Prof. S. C. Schmucker.
4.00 P. M. C. L. S. C. Round Table.
5.00 P. M. Lecture Recital. "The Hans Christian Andersen Centenary" (With story illustrations). Miss Marie L. Shedlock.
8.00 P. M. Concert.

TUESDAY, AUGUST 15

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. II. "The Life of Faith." Bishop Vincent.
11.00 A. M. National Shorthand Reporters' Association. Opening Public Session. Address of Welcome and Response for the N. S. R. A.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. II. "His Master Idea." Prof. S. C. Schmucker.
4.00 P. M. C. L. S. C. Class Meetings.
5.00 P. M. Lecture Recital. "The Value of Fairy Tales in Education" (with story illustrations.) Miss Marie L. Shedlock.
8.00 P. M. Promenade Concert and C. L. S. C. Class Receptions.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 16

RECOGNITION DAY.

10.00 A. M. C. L. S. C. Assemblage.
11.00 A. M. Recognition Day Address. "Work and Play as Factors in Education." Miss Jane Addams.
2.30 P. M. Popular Concert.
5.00 P. M. C. L. S. C. Round Table.
8.00 P. M. Reading. "The County Fair." Mr. Charles Barnard.
8.30 P. M. Dinner to Alumni and Members of the C. L. S. C.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 17

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. "The Life of Joy." Bishop John H. Vincent.
11.00 A. M. N. R. A.—Popular Lecture. "The Beginnings of Pitmanic Shorthand in England and the United States as I Know Them." Mr. Benn Pitman.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. III. "What a Chicken Can Teach Us." Prof. S. C. Schmucker.
4.00 P. M. C. L. S. C. Round Table.
5.00 P. M. Lecture Recital. "Readings from Modern English Humorists." Miss Marie L. Shedlock.
8.00 P. M. Concert. Gilbert & Sullivan Opera, "The Mikado." Chautauqua Soloists, Orchestra and Choir. Mr. Alfred Hallam, Director.

FRIDAY, AUGUST 18

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. IV. "The Life of Service." Bishop John H. Vincent.
11.00 A. M. N. R. A.—Two Popular Addresses. Mr. Oliver Dyer, Mr. Frederick Irland.
2.30 P. M. Annual Gymnastic Exhibition.
5.00 P. M. Popular Lecture. IV. "An Evolutionist's Faith." Prof. S. C. Schmucker.
8.00. N. R. A. Illustrated Lecture. "Shorthand Practically and Historically Considered." Mr. Chas. Currier Beale.
9.15 P. M. Annual Illuminated Fleet.

SATURDAY, AUGUST 19

GRANGE DAY.

10.00 A. M. Lecture. Hon. Robert Watchorn.
11.00 A. M. Popular Concert.
2.30 P. M. Grange Day Platform Exercises. Popular Lecture. "Personal Glimpses of Celebrated Men and Women." Dr. Russell H. Conwell.
8.00 P. M. Concert. Gilbert & Sullivan's Opera, "The Mikado." Chautauqua Soloists, Orchestra and Choir. Mr. Alfred Hallam, Conductor.

SUNDAY, AUGUST 20

10.00 A. M. Bible Study.
11.00 A. M. Sermon. Dean C. D. Williams.
3.00 P. M. Assembly Convocation and Intermediate, Primary and Kindergarten Sunday Schools.
5.00 P. M. C. L. S. C. Vesper Service.
7.45 P. M. Sacred Song Service.

MONDAY, AUGUST 21

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. I. "Four Ways of Loving God." Dean C. D. Williams.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. "Russia and Its Discontent." Prof. E. A. Steiner.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. "The Romantic Movement in France in the early 19th Century: 1. Beginnings of Romanticism—Chateaubriand and Mme. de Stael." Mr. Leon H. Vincent.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. Southern Stories and Sketches I. Miss Lucine Finch,
8.00 P. M. Concert.

TUESDAY AUGUST 22

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. II. "Two Ways of Loving the Neighbor." Dean Williams.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. "The Crisis in Judaism." Prof. E. A. Steiner.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. II. "Victor Hugo the Chief of the Romanticists." Mr. Leon H. Vincent.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. Southern Stories II. Miss Lucine Finch.
8.00 P. M. Illustrated Lecture.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 23

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. III. "Being a Christian in the Present Day." Dean Williams.
11.00 A. M. Lecture. "The Trail of the Emigrant." Prof. E. A. Steiner.
2.30 P. M. Popular Address. Gov Joseph W. Folk.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. Southern Stories III. Miss Lucine Finch.
8.00 P. M. Reading. "Much Ado about Nothing." Mrs. Isabel Garghill Beecher.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 24

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. IV. "The Human Cost of Life." Dean C. D. Williams.
11.00 A. M. Popular Lecture. "Thomas Jefferson." Rev. Dana C. Johnson.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. III. "Theophile Gautier the Historiographer Royal of the Movement." Mr. Leon H. Vincent.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. Southern Stories IV. Miss Lucine Finch.
8.00 P. M. Illustrated Lecture.

FRIDAY, AUGUST 25

10.00 A. M. Devotional Hour. V. Dean Williams.
11.00 A. M. Popular Lecture. "The American Citizen." Rev. Dana C. Johnson.
2.30 P. M. Popular Lecture. IV. "Alexander Dumas and his Adventures." Mr. Leon H. Vincent.
5.00 P. M. Reading Hour. Southern Stories V. Miss Lucine Finch.
8.00 P. M. Reading. "An Evening of American Fiction." Mrs. Isabel Garghill Beecher.

SATURDAY, AUGUST 26

10.00 A. M. Lecture.
11.00 A. M. Popular Lecture. V. "George Sand." Mr. Leon H. Vincent.
2.30 P. M. Address Rev. Frank Bristol.
8.00 P. M. Popular Entertainment.

SUNDAY, AUGUST 27

9.00 P. M. Bible Study.
11.00 P. M. Sermon. Rev. Frank Bristol.
3.00 P. M. Assembly Convocation and Sunday Schools.
5.00 P. M. C. L. S. C. Vesper Service.
7.45 P. M. Sacred Song Service.

Chautauqua Institution Summer Schools-1905

DEPARTMENT OF INSTRUCTION

JOHN H. VINCENT, Chancellor
SCOTT BROWN, General Director

GEORGE E. VINCENT, Principal
PERCY H. BOYNTON, Secretary

EDUCATIONAL COUNCIL

MISS JANE ADDAMS, Hull-House, Chicago
MELVIL DEWEY, New York State Librarian
PRES. E. P. RAYMOND, Wesleyan University
PRES. G. STANLEY HALL, Clark University

SUMMARY OF COURSES

The following is merely a list of courses offered in the fifteen schools of Chautauqua Institution during the summer of 1905. A complete catalog, giving a description of each course, will be mailed on application to Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, New York. This catalog will give full information as to tuition fees and expenses, etc.

I. ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

Professor J. G. Carter Troop, Dr. Richard Burton, Percy H. Boynton, M. Bénédict Papot, Professor George D. Kellogg.

1. Shakespeare: Typical Plays (July 10-28). Prof. J. G. Carter Troop. 2. Development of the English Novel (July 10-28). Prof. Troop. 3. The Modern Drama (July 31-August 18). Dr. Richard Burton. 4. The Modern Lyric (July 31-August 18). Dr. Burton. 5. Outline Study of English Literature (July 10-August 18). Mr. Percy H. Boynton. 6. Rhetoric and Composition (July 10-August 18). Mr. Boynton. 7. French Literature XIX Century (July 10-August 18). M. Bénédict Papot. See II, 17. 8. Latin Literature (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. Kellogg. See III, 4.

II. MODERN LANGUAGES

Professor Otto Heller, G. G. von der Groeben, M. Bénédict Papot, Miss Annadora Baer, Professor Percy B. Burnet.

1. Beginning German (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. Otto Heller. 2. Elementary German Reading and Conversation (July 10-Aug. 18). Mr. G. G. von der Groeben. 3. Intermediate German Grammar (July 10-Aug. 18). Mr. von der Groeben. 4. Intermediate German Reading (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. Heller. 5. German Prose Composition and Reproduction (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. Heller. 6. Advanced German Reading (July 10-Aug. 18.) Mr. von der Groeben. The German Club. The German Entertainment. 7. Children's Class in German (July 10-Aug. 18). 8. Readings in German (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. Heller. 9. Beginning German (July 31-Aug. 18). Instructor to be announced later. Lectures in German Prof. Otto Heller. German Teachers' Conferences. German Table. 10. Beginning French Elementary Grammar (July 10-Aug. 18). M. Bénédict Papot. 11. Beginning French Natural Method (July 10-Aug 18). M. Papot. 12. Tutoring Class in Elementary Grammar (July 10-Aug. 18). Miss Annadora Baer. 13. Tutoring Class in Natural Method (July 10-Aug. 18). Miss Baer. 14. Intermediate French (July 10-Aug. 18). M. Papot. 15. Advanced French (July 10-Aug. 18). M. Papot. 16. Children's Class in French (July 10-Aug. 18). Miss Baer. 17. French Literature XIX Century (July 10-Aug. 18). M. Papot. 18. Teachers' Course in French (July 10-Aug. 18). M. Papot. 19. Readings in French (July 10-Aug. 18). M. Papot. Lectures in French, M. Papot. French Table. French Club. French Entertainment. 20. Elementary Spanish (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. Percy B. Burnet. 21. Intermediate Spanish (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. Burnet. 22. Conversational Spanish (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. Burnet. 23. Courses in Italian (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. Burnet. Spanish Club and Spanish Table.

III. CLASSICAL LANGUAGES

Professor George D. Kellogg.

1. Beginning Latin (July 10-Aug. 18). Professor George D. Kellogg. 2. Teachers' Advanced Training Courses (July 10-Aug 18). Professor Kellogg. (a). Studies in Cæsar (July 10-28). (b). Studies in Cicero's Orations (July 31-Aug. 18). 3. College Latin Course (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. Kellogg. (a) Selections from Ennius, Catullus, Tibullus, Horace, Ovid, Phaedrus, Seneca and Martial (July 10-28). (b). Tacitus' Life of Agricola, and the Germania (July 31-Aug. 18). 4. Latin Literature in English (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. Kellogg. See I, 8. 5. Latin Teachers' Conferences. Prof. Kellogg. Greek will be presented by means of private instruction.

IV. MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE

Louis C. Karpinski, Irving P. Bishop, Miss Bishop, Professor E. S. Babcock.

1. Algebra (July 10-Aug. 18). Mr. Louis C. Karpinski. 2. Plane Geometry (July 10-Aug. 18). Mr. Karpinski. 3. Plane Trigonometry (July 10-Aug. 18). Mr. Karpinski. 4. College Algebra (July 10-Aug. 18). Mr. Karpinski. 5. History of the Development of Arithmetic (July 10-Aug. 18). Mr. Karpinski. 6. Preparatory Physics (July 10-Aug. 18). Mr. Irving P. Bishop. 7. High School Physics (July 10-Aug. 18). Mr. Bishop. 8. Physical Laboratory Work I. Miss Bishop. To accompany and supplement Course 6. Physical Laboratory Work II. Miss Bishop. To accompany and supplement Course 7. 10. General Chemistry (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. E. S. Babcock. 11. Teacher's Course in General Chemistry (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. Babcock. 12. Qualitative Analysis (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. Babcock. 13. Quantitative Analysis (July 10-Aug. 18). Prof. Babcock.

V. PSYCHOLOGY AND PEDAGOGY

Professor George E. Vincent, President Lincoln Hulley, President G. Stanley Hall, Professor Andreas Baumgartner, Professor S. C. Schmucker, Dr. Richard Burton, Miss Ada

Van Stone Harris, Miss Lilian M. McLean, Miss Elizabeth Fleming, Mrs. M. B. Page, Miss Lucy Wheelock, Miss Marie L. Shedlock, Miss Marie R. Hofer, Miss Victoria Cleveland, Miss Alice G. McCloskey, Ralph Wright Curtis, John W. Spencer, Miss E. Josephine Rice, Mrs. Emily M. Bishop, S. H. Clark, James Bird, Dr. James A. Babbitt, Miss Abigail Freeman.

CONVOCATIONS

1. Prof. George E. Vincent. 2. Pres. Lincoln Hulley. 3. Pres. G. Stanley Hall. 4. Prof. Andreas Baumgartner. 5. Prof. S. C. Schmucker. 6. Dr. Richard Burton.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

7. General Methods (July 11-26). Miss Ada Van Stone Harris. 8. Primary Methods (July 10-28). Miss Ada Van Stone Harris. 9. Hand Work in Elementary Grades (July 10-Aug. 4). Miss Lilian M. McLean. 10. Grammar Methods (July 10-Aug. 4). Miss Elizabeth Fleming.

KINDERGARTEN

11. Professional Kindergarten Courses (July 10-Aug. 18). 12. Kindergarten Preparatory Course (July 10-Aug. 18). Open Conferences.

NATURE STUDY

13. Animal and Plant Life (July 10-28). Miss Alice G. McCloskey. 14. Laboratory and Field Work (July 10-28). Mr. Ralph Wright Curtis. 15. Children's Gardens, Mr. John W. Spencer. 16. The Nature Teacher's Course (July 31-Aug. 18). Dr. S. C. Schmucker. 17. The Nature Lover's Course (July 31-Aug. 18). Dr. Schmucker.

METHOD IN SPECIAL SUBJECTS

18. Blackboard Sketching (July 10-28). Miss E. Josephine Rice. 19. Blackboard Sketching (July 31-Aug. 18). Miss Rice. 20. Physical Culture (July 10-28). Mrs. Emily M. Bishop. 21. The Teaching of Reading (July 10-28). Mr. S. H. Clark. 22. Sight Reading and Children's Music (July 10-Aug. 18). Mr. James Bird.

CLASSES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS

23. Kindergarten (July 10-Aug 18). (Children three to six). Mrs. Page and Miss Cleveland. 24. Boys' Club (for boys 8 to 16). July 8-Aug. 21. Under the direction of Dr. James A. Babbitt. 25. Girls' Club (for girls 8 to 16). (July 8-Aug. 21). The Club is under the direction of Miss Abigail Freeman. 26. German (July 10-Aug. 18). 27. French (July 10-Aug. 18). Children's Music, Gymnastics, Manual Training, etc.

NEW YORK STATE FREE INSTITUTE

The New York State Summer Institute at Chautauqua will be open for four weeks, from July 10 to August 4, and again arrangements have been made whereby members of the Institute will be entitled to free gate tickets at Chautauqua and to the privileges of the classes of the Chautauqua Institution Summer Schools *during the entire six weeks* of the session. The conditions of these privileges are given below. Members of the Institute will be exempt from gate fees at Chautauqua July 8-August 19, inclusive.

Members of the Institute are entitled to free tuition from July 10-August 18, inclusive, in two courses not starred of those offered in the Schools of English, Modern Languages, Classical Languages, Mathematics and Science and Pedagogy. By special arrangement with the Principal of Instruction and the Director of the Institute, principals and academic teachers may be admitted to three courses instead of two. The Institute offers twenty-seven drill and review courses.

VI. RELIGIOUS TEACHING

President Lincoln Hulley, Dr. Jesse L. Hurlbut, Dr. Marianna C. Brown, Rev. Samuel Semple, Rev. Mark Guy Pearse, Dr. Amory H. Bradford, Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman, Bishop John H. Vincent, Dean C. D. Williams.

1. The Four Gospels (July 10-28). President Lincoln Hulley. 2. The Sunday School Teachers' Bible Class. Dr Jesse L. Hurlbut. 3. The Sunday School Normal Class (Aug. 1-16). Dr. Hurlbut. 4. Psychology and Method (July 31-Aug. 11). Dr. Marianna C. Brown. 5. Advanced Course in Method (July 31-Aug. 11). Miss Brown. 6. A Course of Bible Stories (Selected dates between Aug. 1 and 16). Dr. Hurlbut. 7. Addresses on Palestine (Four dates to be announced, between Aug. 1 and 16). Dr. Hurlbut. 8. Daily Devotional Hours. Sunday Morning Sermons. The Sunday Schools.

VII. LIBRARY TRAINING

The Chautauqua Library School is designed for librarians of smaller libraries and library assistants who cannot leave their work for the extended courses offered in regular library schools but who can get leave of absence for six weeks of study to gain a broader conception of their work and a general understanding of modern methods and ideals. The school will be in session from July 8 to August 18.

The New York State Library School, in its summer session this year, offers no general course, but confines its attention to library administration and kindred subjects, referring those who wish to cover the whole field in six weeks to Chautauqua. Those who wish to take special summer work, Chautauqua refers to the New York State Library School, Albany, N. Y.

VIII. DOMESTIC SCIENCE.

Mrs. Alice P. Norton, Miss Anna Barrows, Miss Elizabeth S. Darrow.

1. Food and Dietetics (July 8-28). Mrs. Alice P. Norton. 2. and 3. Cookery (July 8-Aug. 18). Miss Anna Barrows. 4. Household Management (July 8-28). Miss Barrows. 5. Administration of the Home (July 8-28). Mrs. Norton. 6. Sanitation (July 31-Aug. 18). Mrs. Norton. 7. Applied Chemistry (July 8-Aug. 18). Laboratory and Lectures. Mrs. Norton. 8. School Room Methods in Cookery (July 8-Aug. 18). Miss Barrows. 9. The Teaching of Domestic Science (July 31-Aug. 18). Mrs. Norton. 10. Sewing (July 8-Aug. 18). Miss Elizabeth S. Darrow. Work in Chemistry, Physics and Physiology will be provided in those departments of the Summer School under which they naturally come.

IX. MUSIC

Dr. Carl E. Dufft, James Bird, William H. Sherwood, Miss Carrie A. Alchin, Sol Marcosson, Dr. Percy J. Starnes, Alfred Hallam,

Miss Georgia Kober, Mrs. E. T. Tobey, J. T. Watkins, Mrs. Carl E. Dufft, W. J. Kitchener, Miss Julia E. Crane.

1. Musical Lectures. 2. Harmony (July 8-Aug. 18). Dr. Percy J. Starnes. 3. Ear Training and Pedagogy. Miss C. A. Alchin. 4. Sight Reading Class. Mr. James Bird. Choruses and Recitals. Children's Piano Classes. Piano Normal Classes (July 11-25 and July 28-Aug. 15). Mrs. Tobey. A Course of Normal Lectures. Interpretation Lectures. Private Lessons: Voice, Violin, Organ, and other instruments.

PUBLIC SCHOOL MUSIC

1. Sight Reading. Mr. James Bird. 2. Methods. Miss Julia E. Crane. 3. Song Interpretation. Miss Crane. 4. Conducting and Choral Work. Mr. Hallam. 5. Elementary Theory. Mr. Bird. 6. Ear Training and Pedagogy. Miss Carrie A. Alchin.

X. ARTS AND CRAFTS

Frank G. Sanford, Frank Lane, Albert R. Lache, Stacey Philbrick, Miss Jean V. Ingham, Miss Sprague, Miss C. C. Richards, Miss Lillian Fliege, George W. Eggers, Mrs. L. Vance-Phillips.

1. Design. Frank G. Sanford. 2. Bench Work for Teachers. Frank Lane. 3. Art Furniture. Mr. Lane. 4. Cane and Rush Seating. Mr. Lane. 5. Art Metal. Mr. Albert R. Lache. 6. Wood Carving. Mr. Lache. 7. Pottery. Mr. Stacey Philbrick. 8. Clay Modeling. Mr. Philbrick. 9. Basketry, Bead Work, and Hand Loom Weaving. Miss Jean V. Ingham and Miss Sprague. 10. Primary Manual Training. Miss Jean V. Ingham. 11. Book Binding. Miss C. C. Richards. 12. Leather Modeling, Stamping and Carving. Miss Lillian Fliege. 13. Illustrating. George W. Eggers. 14. Freehand Drawing. Mr. Eggers. 15. Water Color. Mr. Eggers. 16. Ceramics. Mrs. L. Vance-Phillips and assistants.

XI. EXPRESSION

Mr. S. H. Clark, Mrs. Bertha Kunz-Baker, Mrs. Emily M. Bishop.

1. (a). Voice Culture and Vocal Expression. Mr. Clark and Mrs. Baker. (b). Gesture Developed According to Psychologic Laws. Mrs. Bishop. (c). Literary and Dramatic Interpretation. Mr. Clark and Mrs. Baker. (d). Artistic Rendering. Mr. Clark and Mrs. Baker. 2. Advanced Normal Course. Mr. Clark, Mrs. Bishop, Mrs. Baker. 3. Course in Objective Studies. Mr. Clark, Mrs. Bishop, Mrs. Baker. 4. Reading Aloud. Mr. Clark. 5. Vocal Culture. Mr. Clark or Mrs. Bishop. 6. Shakespeare Course. Mr. Clark. 7. Education of the Emotions. Mrs. Baker. 8. Non-Professional Course. Mrs. Bishop. 9. Course in Diction and Melody of Speech. Mrs. Baker. 10. Group Courses. Mr. Clark or Mrs. Bishop or Mrs. Baker.

XII. PHYSICAL EDUCATION

1. A Normal Course. 2. A Course in Athletic Training. 3. Course in Americanized Delsarte Culture. 4. A Course in Corrective or Medical Gymnastics. 5. A Course in General Gymnastics. 6. Classes for Boys and Classes for Girls. 7. Personal Contest Exercises. 8. A Department of Outdoor Sports.

XIII. PRACTICAL ARTS

William H. Covert, Charles R. Wells, W. D. Bridge, Miss F. M. Bridge, Mrs. John F. Lewis.

Teachers' Normal Course. William H. Covert, Charles R. Wells. Commercial Course. Bookkeeping. Penmanship. Individual Instruction. Shorthand. Mr. W. D. Bridge, assisted by Miss F. M. Bridge. Typewriting. Mr. Bridge and Miss Bridge. Parliamentary Law. (July 17-Aug. 11. Two terms). Mrs. John F. Lewis.

Other Chautauqua Assemblies

CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY CALENDAR, SEASON OF 1905

Place	*Date*	*Recognition Day*
	ALABAMA	
Talladega,	Aug. 3-17.	Aug. 12.
Manager, Wellington J. Vandiver, Talladega.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Wellington J. Vandiver, Talladega.		
	ARKANSAS	
Springdale,	July 16-23.	
	CALIFORNIA	
Long Beach,	July 11-23.	
Manager, G. R. Crow, Los Angeles.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, G. R. Crow, Los Angeles.		
Pacific Grove,	July 11-23.	July 18.
Manager, Chas. Filbin, Frisco.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. E. J. Dawson, San Jose.		
	COLORADO	
Boulder,	July 4-Aug. 7.	Aug. 3.
Manager, F. A. Boggess, Boulder, Colo.		
Colorado Springs,	Aug. 5-15.	Aug. 12.
Manager, Dr. J. R. Robinson, Colorado Springs.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. Ida Laycock, Manitou.		
Palmer Lake, Glen Park,	July 10-Sept. 1.	Aug. 4.
Manager, Frank McDonough, E. & C. Bldg., Denver, Colo.		
C. L. S. C. Representative, C. F. McCarnine, McPhee Bldg., Denver, Colo.		

CONNECTICUT

Forestville, July 13-26. July 20.
Manager, Daniel W. Howell, 411 Windson Ave., Hartford, Conn.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Geo. M. Brown.

ILLINOIS

Clinton, Aug. 18-28.
Manager E. B. Bentley, Clinton, Ill.
C. L. S. C. Representative, E. B. Bentley, Clinton.

Dixon, July 29-Aug. 13. Aug. 10.
Manager, Rev. W. H. Hartman, Foreston, Ill.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Dr. A. L. Miller, Dixon, Ill.

Lincoln, Aug. 16-27.
Manager, D. H. Harts, Lincoln, Ill.
C. L. S. C. Representative, D. H. Harts, Lincoln, Ill.

Lithia Springs, July 29-Aug. 14. Aug. 7.
Manager, Rev. Jasper L. Douthit, Lithia, Ill.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Winifred Douthit, Shelbyville.

Moline, July 13-23.
Manager W. V. Richards, Moline, Ill.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. A. E. Shipley, Des Moines, Ia.

Ottawa, Aug 18-26. Aug. 19.
Manager, R. C. Jordan, Ottawa, Ill.
C. L. S. C. Representative, U. J. Hoffman, Ottawa, Ill.

Petersburg, Aug. 9-24. Aug. 14.
Manager, Rev. Geo. H. Turner, Petersburg, Ill.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. M. E. Merrill, Havana, Ill.

Piasa, July 20-Aug. 16. July 13.
Manager, W. O. Paisley, Chautauqua, Ill.
C. L. S. C. Representative, W. O. Paisley, Chautauqua, Ill.

Pontiac, July 22-Aug. 6. July 27.
Manager, A. C. Folsom, Pontiac, Ill.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. Alice G. Limerick, Winfield, Kansas.

Rockford, Aug. 17-31. Aug. 24.
Manager, A. C. Folsom, Pontiac, Ill.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. Alice G. Limerick, Winfield, Kansas.

INDIANA

Bethany, July 22-Aug. 16. Aug. 1
Manager, L. L. Carpenter, Wabash, Ind.

Rome City, July 19-Aug. 11. Aug. 4.
Manager, Rev. J. F. Snyder, La Grange, Ind.
Secretary, Katherine Harper, Goshen, Ind.

Remington, Aug. 12-27. Aug. 17.
Manager, Robert Parker, Remington.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Robert Parker, Remington.

Winona Lake, July 3-Sept. 1
Manager, Sol C. Dickey, 118 Monument Pl., Indianapolis, Ind.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Emma Anderson, 118 Monument Pl., Indianapolis, Ind.

IOWA

Allerton, August 16-23.
Manager. John A. Shannon, Allerton, Ia.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Inez F. Kelso, Humeston, Ia.

Centerville, Aug. 4-13. Aug. 9.
Manager, J. M. Beck, Centerville, Ia.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Inez F. Kelso, Humeston, Ia.

Clarinda, Aug. 5-19. Aug. 16.
Manager, Wm. Orr, Clarinda.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Wm. Orr, Clarinda.

Clear Lake, July 21-31. July 25.
Manager, Dr. W. W. Carlton, Mason City.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Dr. W. W. Carlton, Mason City.

Creston, June 4-July4. July 3.
Manager, Prof. W. Bell, Creston, Ia.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. Isabel Metcalfe, Creston, Ia.

Des Moines, June 24-July 4. June 24.

Fort Dodge, Aug. 5-16. Aug. 12.
Manager, Dr. Phil Baird, Ft. Dodge, Ia.
C. L. S. C. Representative, J. G. Monk, Ft. Dodge, Ia.

Marshalltown, Aug. 12-20.
Manager, Elijah Brown Jones, Marshalltown, Ia.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Edna Fullerton, Marshalltown.

Washington County, Aug. 15-24.

Waterloo, July 11-Aug. 2. July 20.
Manager, Rev. Frank L. Loveland, Waterloo, Ia.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. Frank L. Loveland, Waterloo, Ia.

KANSAS

Beloit, July 28-Aug. 6. Aug. 5.
Manager, T. H. J. Taggart, Concordia, Kansas.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. A. E. Shipley, 1328 E. 13th St., Des Moines, Ia
Cawker City, Aug. 3-13. Aug. 9.
Manager, E. L. Huckell, Cawker City.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Hamilton, Wichita, Kansas.
Concordia, July 28- Aug. 6. Aug. 5.
Manager, J. C. Porter, Jewell City, Kansas.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. A. E. Shipley, Des Moines, Ia.
Lincoln Park, Aug. 3-13. Aug. 9.
Manager, E. L. Huckell, Cawker City, Kansas.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Hamilton, Wichita, Kas.
Ottawa, July 3-14. uly 13.
Manager, C. S. Nusbaum, Cherryvale, Kansas.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Alma F. Piatt, Wichita, Kansas.
Wathena, Aug. 5-13. Aug. 9.
Manager, A. W. Themanson, Wathena, Kansas.
C. L. S. C. Representative, E. Jeanette Zimmerman.
Winfield, June 20-30. June 26.
Manager, M. L. Wortman, Winfield, Kans.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Alma F. Piatt.

KENTUCKY

Ashland, June 28-July 8. July 7.
Manager, Rev. John McCarthy, Huntington, W. Va.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. John McCarthy, Huntington, W. Va.
Owensboro, Aug. 2-17. Aug. 14.
Manager, W. G. Archer, Owensboro, Ky.
C. L. S. C. Representative, W. G. Archer, Owensboro, Ky.

MAINE

Fryeburg, July 10-24. July 21.
Manager, J. H. Dunne, 1 Beacon St., Boston, Mass.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Charlotte Dunne, 81 College St., Roxbury, Mass.
Ocean Park, July 20-Aug. 31. Aug. 10.
Manager, Rev. W. K. Twort, 12 Reservoir St., Lawrence, Mass.

MARYLAND

Mountain Lake Park, Aug. 3-29. Aug. 16.
Manager, Dr. W. L. Davidson, 1711 Grant St., Washington, D. C.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Dr. W. L. Davidson, 1711 Grant St., Washington, D. C.
Washington Grove, July 4-Sept. 11. Aug. 17.
Manager, W. H. H. Smith, Room 382, Navy Dep't., Washington, D. C.
C. L. S. C. Representative, W. H. H. Smith, Room 382, Navy Dep't., Washington, D. C.

MASSACHUSETTS

Northampton, July 11-21. July 19.
Manager, Dr. W. L. Davidson, 1711 Grant St., Washington. D. C.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Dr. W. L. Davidson, 1711 Grant St., Washington, D. C.

MISSOURI

Carthage, July 3-12. July 8.
Manager, H. J. Fitzer, Carthage.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. Alma F. Piatt.
Pertle Springs, Aug. 8-17.
Manager A. C. Stewart, 401 N. 4th St., St. Louis, Mo.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. A. E. Shipley, 1328 E. 13th St., Des Moines, Ia.

NEBRASKA

Beatrice, July 6-18.
Manager, Fuller Swift, Des Moines, Ia.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Julia Fuller, Beatrice, Neb.

NEW YORK

Chautauqua, June 29-Aug. 27. Aug. 16.
Manager, Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, N. Y.
C. L. S. C. Home Office.
Findlay Lake, Aug. 14-27. Aug. 18.
Manager, Byron W. King, Swissvale, Pa.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Byron W. King, Swissvale, Pa.

NORTH DAKOTA

Devil's Lake, July 1-18. July 14.
Manager, Edgar La Rue, Devil's Lake, N. D.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. Chas. E. Risser, 1907 6th Ave., Des Moines, Ia.

OHIO

Bethesda, Aug. 2-16. Aug. 9.
Manager, Rev. M. J. Slutz, Barnesville, O.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. P. U. Hawkins, Barnesville, O.

Celina, July 21-31.
Manager and C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. Milton W. Brown, Westwood, Cincinnati, O.

Delaware, Aug. 4-14. Aug. 14.
Manager and C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev Milton W. Brown, Westwood, Cincinnati, O.

Lima, July 21-31.
Manager and C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. Milton W. Brown, Westwood, Cincinnati, O.

Miami Valley, July 21-Aug. 7.

Wellston, Alma Lake, Aug. 11-21.
Manager and C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. Milton W. Brown, Westwood, Cincinnati, O.

OKLAHOMA

Oklahoma, June 15-22.
Manager, E. A. Tinkham, Oklahoma City, Okla.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. A. H. Limerick, Winfield, Kansas.

PENNSYLVANIA

Conneaut, July 14-22. July 20.
Manager, Rev. W. J. Barton, East Randolph, N. Y.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. W. J. Barton, East Randolph, N. Y.

Mt. Gretna, July 3-Aug. 4. July 27.
Manager, N. C. Schaefer, Harrisburg.
C. L. S. C. Representative, L. E. McGinnis, Steelton, Pa.

Pocono Pines, July 10-Aug. 5. Aug. 4.
Manager, G. P. Eckles, Pocono Pines, Pa.
C. L. S. C. Representative, J. H. Morgan, Ph. D., Carlisle.

Ridgeview Park, July 28-Aug. 8. Aug. 4.
Manager, W. C. Weaver, Homestead, Pa.
C. L. S. C. Representative, W. C. Weaver, Homestead, Pa.

SOUTH DAKOTA

Big Stone, June 29-July 10. July 7.
Manager, S. R. Golden, Big Stone, S. D.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. Etta Vosburgh, Milbank, S. D.

Canton, June 29-July 9. July 3.
Manager, Dr. N. A. Swickard, Canton, S. D.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Dr. N. A. Swickard, Canton, S. D.

Madison, June 24-July 10. July 3.
Manager, H. P. Smith, Madison, S. D.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. Hugh Robinson, Madison.

TENNESSEE

Monteagle, July 3-Aug. 31. July 20.
Manager, M. B. Pilcher, Nashville, Tenn.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Effie Scoville, Nashville, Tenn.

VIRGINIA

Shenandoah Valley, Aug. 4-16. Aug. 12.
Manager, A. P. Funkhouser, Harrisonburg.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Miss Jessie Funkhouser, Harrisonburg.

Wytheville, Aug. 7-28.
Manager and C. L. S. C. Representative, John Lee Allison, Wytheville, Va.

WEST VIRGINIA

Moundsville, Aug. 1-10. Aug. 5.
Manager, C. B. Graham, 623 Main St., Wheeling, W. Va.
C. L. S. C. Representative, B. B. Evans, Huntington, W. Va.

WISCONSIN

Chetek, July 11-21.
Manager, J. W. Bell, Chetek, Wisconsin.
C. L. S. C. Representative, E. D. Claypool, Fayette, Ia.

Delavan Lake, Aug. 2-13.

Marinette, July 13-24. July 21.
Manager, George W. Hanley, Marinette, Wis.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Carrie L. Grout, Rockford, Ill.

Monona Lake (Madison), July 21-Aug. 5. Aug. 3.
Manager, Jas. E. Mosely, Madison, Wis.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Maria F. Hanchet, Madison, Wis.

Waupaca, Aug. 15-30. Aug. 23.
Manager, H. A. Larson, Waupaca.
C. L. S. C. Representative, H. A. Larson, Waupaca.

ALABAMA CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY, TALLADEGA, ALABAMA

The eleventh annual Alabama Chautauqua Assembly opens August 3 and closes August 17. Recognition Day is August 12. Oratorical and Sophomore College Contests occur August 14.

SPRINGDALE, ARKANSAS

The Springdale Chautauqua opens July 16 and closes July 23. The exercises will be held in the new auditorium recently completed. The program includes such lecturers as the Rev. Geo. R. Stuart, Hon. Lou J. Beauchamp, Rev. Thomas McClary, Rev. G. E. Gowdy, Hon. J. H. Henemon, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and Dr. Henry S. Hartzog, President of the University of Arkansas. Music will be furnished throughout the session by Kreyer's Orchestra of Fort Scott, Kansas. Morning and evening sessions will be devoted to the Chautauqua lecture work.

PACIFIC GROVE, CALIFORNIA

The Pacific Grove Chautauqua Assembly will hold its twenty-sixth session July 11-23. Special observance was had of the twenty-fifth anniversary at the Assembly last summer and an interest excited that has marked the year in the Circle work and promises to promote the success of the Assembly. Dr. F. W. Gunsaulus, Dr. W. A. Quayle, and Carter the Magician, are to fill the Coast Circuit, which includes the assemblies at Oregon City and Ashland, Oregon, and Pacific Grove and Long Beach, California. Recognition Day will be July 18, and no year has passed in the history of the Assembly without graduates. The departments of the Assembly will include Walks and Talks in Marine Biology, Conchology, and Geology; schools of Art, Elocution, Cookery, German, Spanish, Music, and History. Bible Study has a first place in the program.

Mrs. E. J. Dawson, secretary of the Pacific Coast Branch, C. L. S. C. is also secretary of the Assembly and the direct interests of the reading work are carefully furthered. Dr. Thos. Filben is superintendent of instruction.

THE COLORADO CHAUTAUQUA, BOULDER, COLORADO

The eighth annual assembly of the Colorado Chautauqua will open July 4, and close August 7. Recognition Day will be August 3. The Summer School includes the following departments: Bible Study, Primary Methods, Psychology and Pedagogy, Modern Languages, Classics, Science, Literature, Physical Culture, Dramatic Expression, Voice Culture, Domestic Science, Instrumental Music, Kinderten, Health, Art and Normal. In addition to these are held C. L. S. C. Round Tables and Woman's Council meetings. Prominent educators from all over the country are engaged to conduct courses.

Several special days in addition to Recognition Day are planned for this assembly. Bryan-Jones Day comes on July 22; Club Woman's Day on July 28; and The Woodmen of the World will have a day on July 29.

The platform program presents a number of attractions including the following: Sam P. Jones, William Jennings Bryan, and Frank R. Roberson, lecturers; Miss Mary F. Stevens, Miss Zoa P. Park, singers; Rischar's Orchestra, the Carolinian Jubilee Troupe, the Roney Boys, and the Dunbar Male Quartette, musical organizations.

THE ROCKY MOUNTAIN CHAUTAUQUA, GLEN PARK, COLORADO

The Rocky Mountain Chautauqua Assembly at Glen Park, Palmer Lake, Colorado, is entering upon its nineteenth season. The program will open in July and continue through the first week of September. The Rev. B. T. Vincent, D. D., of Greeley, Colorado, is Superintendent of Instruction. During the special weeks the following educators will appear: Week of Sociology, J. E. Le Rossignol, Professor of Sociology, Denver University; Week of Bible Conference, the Rev. John C. Carman; Week of Education,

Frank H. H. Roberts, Professor of History, Denver University; Week of Christian Work, G. S. Bilheimer. The program is arranged to please and benefit, as far as possible, sojourners who come from Colorado and adjacent states. Owing to the large number of conventions to be held in the city of Denver during the coming summer, many visitors from the East and South are anticipated at the Glen Park Chautauqua, which has the most convenient railroad service of any resort in Colorado.

Further information may be obtained by addressing the Secretary of the Chautauqua, Palmer Lake, Colorado.

CONNECTICUT CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY

The Connecticut Chautauqua Assembly opens on Thursday, July 13, and closes Wednesday evening, July 26. Recognition Day, Thursday, July 20. The C. L. S. C. plans will include a daily Round Table, emphasizing the courses by personal conversation. The presence of the enthusiastic Chautauquan, Dr. G. M. Brown, will give a continual interest to the main work of the assembly. The courses offered are: Bible Study; Nature Study; Elocution and Delsarte; Domestic Science; Photography; Basketry; entertainments; athletics; music; C. L. S. C. Courses. The special teachers and lecturers in departmental work are: Prof. W. N. Clute, Editor of the *American Botanist;* Dr. Jesse Lyman Hurlbut, Rev. E. C. Tullar, Biblical scholars; Mrs. Kittie Middlebrook Holton, Principal Holton School of Oratory, Miss Myrtie E. Robinson, Cooking School Demonstrator; Mr. George H. Leopold, Photographer to Yale University; Miss Annie R. McDonnell, Primary Specialist; Mr. Isaac H. Meredith, Musical Composer; Dr. G. M. Brown, Chautauqua Secretary. The entertainment department will include Dr. Eugene May, Lecturer on Travel and Literature; The American Vitagraph Company, with moving pictures; Mr. Hal Merton, Illusionist; Miss Dee McClaran, Soprano Soloist; Dr. Edward Farrow, Lecturer on Sights and Scenes; Dr. Frank M. Kerr, Lincoln Lecturer; Principal A. D. Call, Rev. F. B. Stockdale.

The assembly is held at the grounds, near Forestville, a delightful spot in the Connecticut woods between Plainville and Forestville.

ROCK RIVER ASSEMBLY, DIXON, ILLINOIS

Rock River Assembly at Dixon, Ill., is to hold its eighteenth session July 29 to August 13 inclusive. Assembly Park is noted for its fine location, its large and fine Auditorium, Chautauqua Hall, Bible House, Comfort Buildings, large hotel. The program is arranged along Chautauqua lines, and includes lecturers Hon. W. J. Bryan, Prof. S. A. Long, Gov. La Follette, Henry D. Rathbone, Dr. E. L. Eaton, Prof. John W. Wetzel of Yale University, Holmes Dysinger, Prof. William R. Webb, Eugene V. Debs, Prof. Reno B. Welbourn, Col. Geo. W. Bain, Rev. H. A. Ott, Madam Mountford, and M. Coover, D. D. The evenings will be chiefly given to concerts and entertainments under the leadership of such popular persons as D. W. Robertson, Ross Crane, Jubilee Singers, The Euterpean Club, Katharine Ertz Bowden, Edward T. Clissold, Miss C. E. Bingaman, Mrs. F. A. Fay. The schools will be represented by Bible, Normal Sunday School, Elocution, Physical Culture, Boys' Club under Director Prof. Irving W. Laramore, etc. An educator of national reputation will probably give the Recognition Day address of August 10. The C. L. S. C. Round Table will be held daily, conducted by Rev. W. H. Hartman, of Forreston, Ill. For further information address Adam A. Krape, Manager, Lena, Ill.

LITHIA SPRINGS CHAUTAUQUA, LITHIA, SHELBY COUNTY, ILLINOIS

The Lithia Springs Chautauqua for 1905 opens Saturday, July 29, and closes August 14, Jasper L. Douthit, manager. The program is remarkably strong, comprising genuine Chautauqua work and aiming especially to accommodate

C. L. S. C. GRADUATES AT CONNECTICUT CHAUTAUQUA, 1904

teachers, farmers, children, and young people.

The first day will be Sunday School Day with admission free to all Sunday school scholars and workers. A teachers' institute and also popular Bible study classes will be conducted daily for the first week. The teachers' institute will be directed by Professor H. W. Shryock, registrar of Southern Illinois Normal School, assisted by Mrs. J. P. Gilberts of the State University and others. The Bible study will be conducted by the Rev. Julien L. Rogers of Atlanta, Ga. During the first week, also, Newton M. Riddell will deliver a series of lectures on "Brain Building and Soul Growth."

The Recognition Day address will be given by Dr. George E. Vincent on Monday, August 7. A large class is expected to pass through the Golden Gate. On Illinois Day, Governor Deneen, Senator George D. Chafee and others are expected to give addresses. Saturday, August 5, will be Educational Day. Prof. Shryock of the State Normal, Prof. J. W. Wetzel of Yale and other distinguished educators will be present. Saturday, August 12, will be Children's Day. Prof. Pamiharki will give his marvelous Bird and Dog Show with $10,000 worth of trained pets. On Farmer's Day, lectures will be given by leading agriculturists, and Charles Barnard, author and reader, of New York City will give his popular entertainment "The County Fair." Sunday, August 6, will be Young People's Religious Society Day. Hon. James L. Loar, President of Illinois State Epworth League, and representatives of the Christian Endeavor and other young folks religious organizations will take part. Illinois State Chairman, Alonzo E. Wilson, will have charge of the program on Prohibition Day. Thursday, August 10, Rev. E. Tennyson Smith, the great temperance reformer and orator of Birmingham, England, will be present. Lectures and sermons will be given by Dr. John Q. Adams, Professor Shajler Mathews, Nat. M. Brigham, Dr. David Paulson, Rev. A. C. Grier, Rev. J. C. Van Pelt, D. D., Dr. Scott F. Hershey, Rev. Fred V. Hawley, Rev. W. M. Backus, Rev. J. W. McDonald, Prof. Henry H. Barber, and others. Rev. Arthur G. Sul-

lens of Central Park Congregational Church, Chicago, will direct the music.

There will be classes under excellent teachers in Cooking, Nursing, Health, Physical Culture, Kindergarten, Elocution and Oratory, Science, Literature, History, etc. Miss Georgia Hopkins will direct the Round Table. Col. John Sobieski will preside for several days over a free parliament and will give an up-to-date lecture on the war in the Far East. Prof. John W. Hetzel and Dr. John L. Cook will serve as platform managers. Miss Winifred Douthit, Secretary of the Lithia Springs Chautauqua C. L. S. C., will be glad to answer all inquiries concerning graduation, and the studies for next year.

PIASA CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY

The Piasa Chautauqua Assembly, located at Chautauqua, Jersey County, Illinois, will hold its twenty-second annual assembly from July 20 to August 16, inclusive. Recognition Day will be July 31.

The grounds comprise 310 acres along the Piasa Bluffs, thirteen miles above Alton and thirty-seven miles from St. Louis, on the Mississippi River. While the program covers but twenty-eight days, the grounds will be open from June 1 to October 1 and Sunday services will be held during that time for the cottagers on the grounds.

The special days announced in the program will include in addition to Recognition Day, a Health Day, Children's Study Day, Municipal Improvement Days, Sunday School Days, W. C. T. U. Days, Modern Woodmen Day, Mutual Protective League Day, Illinois Day, etc. Among the features of the program will be Sam Jones, Slayton Jubilee Singers, George R. Stuart, Ira D. Landrith, Rosani, the Vitagraph, Oxenham's Moving Pictures, Capt. W. R. Webb, George E. Gowdy, John Quincy Adams, Atkins' Family Band, Prof. W. F. Starr, Mrs. Starr, Hon. W. E. Williams, Miss Margaret D. Slifer, and many others.

ENTRANCE TO PIASA CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY

The classes will include Art, Music, Elocution, Needlework, Athletics, and various schools of methods.

The Piasa Chautauqua Assembly made great improvements on the grounds last season and their facilities are better than ever before. A fine swimming pool, a new fleet of boats, an electric light plant, an enlarged water works system, a new hotel, twenty-five new rustic bridges, and a score of new cottages were put in last year. Many other improvements will be made before the assembly opens for 1905.

PONTIAC, ILLINOIS

The Pontiac Chautauqua, located at Riverview Park, Pontiac, Illinois, will hold its eighth annual session commencing July 22 and closing August 6, 1905, covering a period of sixteen days. A long term lease has been made for the park and the erection of a number of cottages is contemplated. Thursday, July 27, has been designated as Recognition Day, the address to be delivered by Dr. Julien S. Rogers, of Atlanta, Georgia. Some of the leading features of the program are Governor Robert M. LaFollette, Dr. William Spurgeon, Hon. William J. Bryan, Col. George W. Bain, Rev. William A. Sunday, Rev. Sam P. Jones, Dr. M. C. B. Mason, Hon. John Barrett, Dr. George R. Stuart, Mrs. Leonora M. Lake, besides a host of first class entertainers. Schools and conferences will be held, including Art and Daily Life, Basket Weaving, Boys' Club, Civic Improvement Congress, Cooking, Free Parliament, Health, Kindergarten, Ministerial Conference, Nature Study, Normal Bible, Reform Congress, W. C. T. U. Institute. Mrs. Alice G. Limerick, of Kansas, has been engaged to conduct the Round Tables during the season and have charge of the C. L. S. C. headquarters during the entire Assembly. A strong effort will be made to obtain a large number of readers and it is believed that the effort will meet with success. A. C. Folsom, Pontiac, Illinois, is Superintendent.

ROCKFORD, ILLINOIS

The Rockford Chautauqua Assembly will hold its fourth annual session at Harlem Park, Rockford, Illinois, for fifteen days, August 17 to 31, inclusive. Among the principal lecturers may be mentioned Maud Ballington Booth, Dr. M. C. B. Mason, Dr. G. W. Frost, Bishop Charles B. Galloway, Rev. Sam. P. Jones, Dr. George R. Stuart, Dr. William Spurgeon, Hon, William J. Bryan, Miss Jane Addams, Gov. Robert M. LaFollette, Hon. John Barrett, Mrs. Leonora M. Lake, and Dr. Silas C. Swallow. There will be schools and classes in Art and Daily Life, Basket Weaving, Boys' Club, Chautauqua Round Tables, Cooking, Elocution, Fencing, Free Parliament, Girls' Outlook, Health, Kindergarten, Literature, Ministerial Conference, Mothers' Congress, Nature Study, Non-partisan Temperance Council, Normal Bible, Physical Culure, W. C. T. U. Institute, Young Ladies' Outlook Club. Recognition Day will be Thursday, August 24, the address to be given by Dr. Julien S. Rogers, of Atlanta, Georgia. Arrangements have been made with Mrs. Alice G. Limerick, of Kansas, to conduct the Chautauqua Round Table and have charge of the C. L. S. C. work during the entire assembly. It is hoped and believed that a large enrollment of readers will be had. A. C. Folsom, of Pontiac, Illinois, continues to act as superintendent.

ISLAND PARK ASSEMBLY, ROME CITY, INDIANA.

The twenty-seventh annual assembly of the Western Chautauqua will be held on the attractive grounds at Sylvan Lake from July 19 to August 11, inclusive. Recognition Day will be Friday, August 4. There will also be a number of other special days, including: Grand Army Day, Entertainment Day, Fanny Crosby Day, Sunday School Day, Fraternity Day, Assembly Reunion Day, Bishop Vincent Day, Pentecostal Sabbath, Evangelistic

tion of J. Wilbur Chapman, has become one of the most popular institutions of this character in the country. Among the distinguished preachers and laymen who will be heard at this conference are Francis L. Patton, ex-President of Princeton University, Dr. G. A. Johnston Ross of Cambridge, Eng., Bishop J. M. Thoburn, Rev. Henry Ostrum, Dr. L. W. Munhall, Rev. James M. Gray of Boston, Maud Ballington Booth, W. E. Lougee, business secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association, Hon. M. Linn Bruce, Lieutenant-Governor of New York, John Willis Baer of New York, John H. Converse of Philadelphia, and Hon. William Jennings Bryan.

MARSHALLTOWN, IOWA

The opening day of the Marshalltown Chautauqua is Saturday, August 12. Professor Holden of the State Agricultural College at Ames will speak on "Agriculture" in the morning and on "Corn" in the afternoon. Other lecturers will be Sam Jones, Professor L. E. Follensbee, Dr. Charles J. English, and Dr. S. S. Cryor, who will conduct Bible study.

Of the morning exercises, to which admission is free, two will be devoted to C. L. S. C. topics, one to the Daughters of the American Revolution, one to the W. C. T. U., one to the social settlement.

WASHINGTON COUNTY CHAUTAUQUA, WASHINGTON, IOWA

The Washington County Chautauqua extends from August 15 to August 24. The Summer School will contain Cooking, History and Bible departments. Important speakers will be William J. Bryan and Governor La Follette.

BELOIT, KANSAS

The Chautauqua Assembly at Beloit, Kansas, opens July 28 and closes August 6. Recognition Day is Saturday, August 6.

The summer schools study list includes Preachers' Congress, Bible Study, Missions, C. L. S. C., Epworth League Methods. An endeavor will be made this year to strengthen the C. L. S. C. and to this end Mrs. A. E. Shipley of Des Moines, Iowa, has been engaged to conduct the C. L. S. C. work. A day of special interest in this Chautauqua will be National Day, August 3.

LINCOLN PARK CHAUTAUQUA, CAWKER CITY, KANSAS

The Lincoln Park Chautauqua will extend from August 3 to August 13, inclusive. Recognition Day will be the 9th of August. A strong lecture program has been made out.

The Opening Day will be marked by special features and the evening program is one of the best ever given by this assembly. Other important days are: Editor's Day, August 5; Sunday School Day, Sunday, August 6; Patriotic Day, either August 7 or 12; National Day, August 11.

The department schools are: C. L. S. C. department, Women's Club department, Domestic Science, Art, Elocution, Athletics, Bible, Vocal Music, Sacred Literature, Kindergarten, Sunday School Normal, Boys' Club, and Girls' Club.

Miss Hamilton will conduct the C. L. S. C. department, and there will be Round Table lectures every afternoon with C. L. S. C. vesper services each Sunday. There is a large number of readers this year.

The tenting places of the park have been changed recently and a number of improvements have been made.

WATHENA, KANSAS

The Wathena Chautauqua extends August 5-13. Recognition Day will be August 9. C. L. S. C. work will be conducted by E. Jeannetta Zimmerman. Leading attractions include: Charles T. Grilley, Hon. Eugene V. Debs, Father F. C. Kelley, J. De Witt Miller, L. B. Wickersham, Sam P. Jones, Capt. Jack Crawford, Dr. John M. Driver, Maud Ballington Booth, Dr. Wilber F. Crafts, Rev. J. H. Engle, H. H. Loudenback, E. Jeannetta Zimmerman, Allen's Family Orchestra, Edison's Moving Pictures.

WINFIELD, KANSAS

The nineteenth session of the Winfield Chautauqua Assembly, will be held June 20 to June 30, eleven days. The outlook for a large attendance is very bright. The Winfield Chautauqua is in very prosperous condition and is self-supporting. The new auditorium, remodeled last year at considerable cost, is the best out-of-door auditorium in the West. Its seating capacity is approximately 3,000. It has a cement floor, raised seats and a stage that will seat 500 people, fashioned after the platform at the mother Chautauqua. There is a new Hall of Philosophy and also a new Woman's Building lately erected that give room for additional classes and department work. In addition to these there are the Athletic Hall, the Kindergarten Hall, and each year in order to accommodate the summer schools there is erected a commodious pavilion.

The program for the nineteenth session is divided into sixteen departments. The foremost is the C. L. S. C. department under the direction of Mrs. Alma F. Piatt, who for several years has had charge of this branch of the Chautauqua and has built it up to its present high state of efficiency. The Sacred Literature department is again under the direction of Prof. George L. Robinson, of the McCormick Theological Seminary, of Chicago. This will make Dr. Robinson's fourth year at Winfield. The Literature Department is under the direction of Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker. This will be Mrs. Baker's third year. The Department of Sunday School Methods and Teachers' Institute will again for the third time be directed by Mrs. Antoinette Lamoreaux, of Chicago. Mr. I. W. Larimore, of Denver, has the direction of the boys' and girls' clubs; and Mr. Edwin Johnson, of St. Louis, has charge of the music. The Missionary Congress will be directed by Mrs. Fanny C. Hays, a returned missionary from China. The Young People's Congress of P. Y. P. U., Christian Endeavor, and Epworth League societies continue throughout the session, having two hours daily on the program.

The lecture platform itself is very complete this year, opening on the first day, Farmer's Day, with an address by the Assistant Secretary of Agriculture, Hon. W. M. Hayes. William Jennings Bryan speaks on June 21. On Saturday, June 24, Gov. LaFollette, of Wisconsin, is the chief attraction. The Sunday program at Winfield Chautauqua is always largely attended. There will be this year the Chautauqua Sunday School by Mrs. Lamoreaux and the morning sermon by Rev. J. Wilbur Chapman, the afternoon sermon by Rev. Sam Jones and Dr. Geo. L. Robinson, the Chautauqua Vesper Service with Bible readings by Byron W. King, and at night the sacred concert by the Dunbar Quartette.

Recognition Day for the C. L. S. C. is Monday, June 26. This is always a great day at the Chautauqua. A large procession will be headed by the famous World's Fair Indian Band, and a large class of graduates will be present to receive their diplomas at the hands of Mrs. Piatt. The Recognition Day address will be delivered by Rev. J. Wilbur Chapman. The day for field sports is Wednesday, June 28, and at night there is an Indian entertainment given by the scholars of the Government Indian School at Chilocco, Oklahoma. Athletic night is always observed at the Chautauqua, and comes this year on Thursday, June 29. The closing day, Friday, June 30, is Children's Day, and the day for the Sunday school rally.

While the lecture platform is well cared for, yet the true aim of this Chautauqua is to stimulate the interests of its patrons through the departments and classes; in other words, to make the Chautauqua a summer school or schools that for ten days (and next year two weeks) will attract the people both for an outing and a season of intellectual advancement.

OCEAN PARK, MAINE

The twentieth of July marks the open-

ing of the Summer Assembly at Ocean Park, Me. The first twelve days of the Assembly are to be devoted to the Bible Conference under the direction of a committee of well known clergymen. With the first of August begins the Chautauqua Assembly. The C. L. S. C. work will be emphasized by Round Tables and Rally Days, while for Recognition Day, August 10, a program of unusual interest has been provided. The latter part of the Assembly will be given up to Denominational days, and the Woman's Convention. The special days include: Children's Day, Guild Day Young People's Day, Improvement Day, Recognition Day, and Woman's Suffrage Day.

Among the most attractive features of the program are, the recitals by Prof. Henry Southwick, and Prof. Herbert Davis; the moving pictures by Prof. Decker, the lectures by E. Tennyson Smith, Prof. D. W. Hoff, U. S. District Attorney, and Guy Andrews Ham, and the grand concerts under the direction of Prof. Albert Briggs.

During the season, there will be classes in art, physical culture, kindergarten work, and children's normal classes, all under the direction of competent teachers. The Biblical Institute will be conducted by Rev. W. A. Bartlett D. D. The Assembly closes August 31.

WASHINGTON GROVE, MARYLAND

The fourth season of the Washington Grove Chautauqua extends from July 4 to September 11. Recognition Day will be August 8. A special camp meeting will be held from July 16 to July 30. The principal summer schools are Kindergarten, Art, and Music schools, and there are also classes and Round Tables devoted especially to the C. L. S. C. work.

The program will include such speakers and entertainers as Dr. Davidson, Dr. Green, and Dr. Hickman; Dewitt Miller, Anderson, Caveny, Pearsons, Smith and Marshall, and the Dailey Quartette. Dr. W. H. Hickman, president of the board of trustees, Chautauqua Institution, will award the diplomas and make the Recognition Day address.

A new auditorium, capable of seating over 1,400 people, and with ample platform and class room will be ready for the opening on the Fourth of July.

CARTHAGE, MISSOURI

The Carthage Chautauqua Assembly will convene July 3, and continue ten days. For the Fourth of July, one of the big days, Sam P. Jones has been engaged to deliver the oration. The Assembly intends to make a feature of Recognition Day and has planned an elaborate procession, after which there will be an address from Dr. T. W. Jeffrey. Mrs. Alma F. Piatt of Wichita, Kansas, has been secured to conduct the recognition ceremonies. Aside from these red letter days and a third, Governor's Day, there will be a very interesting program including such speakers and attractions as Jane Addams, Dr. T. E. Greer, Rev. George McNutt, Sam P. Jones, S. W. Gillilan, Callie Howe, Bertha King Baker, Frank R. Roberson, Dunbar Quartette, Kaffir Boy Choir, American Vitagraph Co.

PERTLE SPRINGS, MISSOURI

This assembly will open August 8 and close August 17. The leading features of the program are: Normal Bible study for adults, conducted the first week by Rev. Lincoln Hulley, D. D. and the last week by Dean Alfred Wright, of Boston; young persons' (ten to fifteen), children's, mothers', and primary teachers' conferences, conducted by Mrs. Geo. S. Simonds, of Kansas City; scientific, literary and illustrated lectures by Prof. E. B. Swift, Rev. J. M. Hubbert, D. D., and Prof. Edward Burton McDowell; high class music; School of Sunday School Methods and Woman's missionary societies; church and Sunday school services. It is intended to emphasize the C. L. S. C. and to this end a committee will have it in charge, and Mrs. A. E. Shipley will conduct daily Round Tables.

DEVIL'S LAKE, NORTH DAKOTA

The Devil's Lake Assembly opens July 1 and closes July 18. C. L. S. C. work will be carried on and there will be, in addition, kindergarten, boys' and girls' clubs, classes in painting, etc.

CELINA, DELAWARE, ALMA LAKE, OHIO

The Celina Chautauqua will be held from July 21 to July 31; the Delaware Chautauqua will be held from August 4 to August 14; and the Alma Lake Chautauqua August 11 to August 21. Recognition Day in each case is the last day of the Assembly. The summer schools include the Cincinnati College of Music and the Hayward School of Expression in each Chautauqua, and at Celina and Delaware a Congress of Agriculture. Children's work will be emphasized. A chorus will be organized under the direction of Karl Gantvoort of Cincinnati.

MIAMI VALLEY, OHIO.

The tenth annual assembly of the Miami Valley Chautauqua will be held on the association grounds July 21 to August 7 inclusive. A School of Industrial Art will be conducted with a staff of eight teachers. It includes departments in Bible Work, Normal Sunday School, Literature, Science, History and Industrial Art. The Ohio Teachers' Reading Circle work will be carried on, commencement exercises being held August 4. Some of the speakers are: Gov. La Follette, Dr. Thomas I. E. Greene, Frederick W. Unger, Sam. P. Jones, Austin K. de Blois, Prof. Pearson, Dr. Charles A. Eastman, William J. Bryan, Rev. J. H. Moxley of London, Dr. Fess, Dr. Schmucker, Dr. Wright, Rhys R. Lloyd, Chaplain Varney, Bishop C. H. Fowler.

KINGFISHER, OKLAHOMA

The Kingfisher Assembly meets for ten days June 1-11. Among the lecturers and speakers engaged are: Rev. H. C. Garvin, Rev. C. A. Moore, Rev. C. F. Vreeland, Father Vaughn, Rev. Matt S. Hughes, H. L. Cope, Rev. Frank N. Lynch, Sam Jones, Mrs. A. C. Scott, Prof. Louis Williams, and Prof. W. H. Oxenham. The Rev. C. A. Moore will conduct a Round Table, daily.

SCENE AT PACIFIC GROVE CHAUTAUQUA

MONTEAGLE ASSEMBLY, TENNESSEE

The twenty-third annual session of the Monteagle Assembly continues for sixty days, July 3 to August 31. Recognition Day is July 20. A wide range of summer courses under very competent instructors is announced by this large Southern Chautauqua. Some of the special schools and courses are as follows: Monteagle Training School for Sunday School Workers, under the direction of Dr. H. M. Hamill; School of Music under the direction of Douglass Powell, late Professor in Trinity College, London; School of English, conducted by Miss Mary A. Bryant of Columbia Institute; Department of Domestic Sciences and Household Economics, Miss Ella G. Neave; School of Art under the direction of Miss Lucy Taylor of Columbia Institute; School of Industrial Art, conducted by Mrs. Elmer G. Lawrence; School of Mathematics, and School of Natural Science both under the direction of Professor James A. Lyon; School of Languages, of which Miss Jean Courtney will be the chief teacher; College of Oratory, conducted by Mrs. Foss L. Whitney; Bookkeeping, Shorthand, and Typewriting; School of Physical Education; and School of Methods. Miss Effie Scovil will direct the C. L. S. C. exercises. Women's Week and Mission Week both have important places on the program.

Special lecturers, readers, and singers, include: Frederick Warde, Paul M. Pearson, W. R. Webb, Kenneth Bruce, Dean Alfred A. Wright, Ralph Parlette, J. Franklin Caveny, Nat. M. Brigham, Mrs. Foster Comegys, Helen Mar Wilson, Katherine Eggleston, Jeanette Kling, Miss Estelle Mitchell, Edward P. Elliott, Miss Florence G. Atkins and others.

Among improvements is a new system of sewerage—the gift of Assembly President, Colonel John W. Thomas.

MADISON, SOUTH DAKOTA

The Lake Madison Chautauqua will open June 24 and close July 10. Recognition Day is July 3. The mornings will be occupied with class work: Kindergartens, Bible School, Sunday School Normal, Music, etc., with C. L. S. C. Round Table at 11 A. M. The afternoon programs are filled by special lecturers and the evenings with entertainments.

DELAVAN, WISCONSIN

The Delavan Lake Chautauqua covers the dates August 2 to August 13, inclusive. Department work includes Normal Bible Study, Kindergarten. Health School, Cooking Demonstrations, Lectures on Nursing, and Round Table.

MARINETTE, WISCONSIN

The Northern Chautauqua Assembly opens on Thursday evening, July 13, and closes Monday evening, July 24. The Round Table will be conducted by Mrs. Carrie L. Grout of Rockford, Illinois. Kindergarten classes will be in charge of Miss Frances Greenlaw, and Physical Culture classes in charge of Miss Florence E. Fleming. There will, in addition, be a strong popular program of lectures, readings, and music at which the following well known people will appear: Governor LaFollette, Newell Dwight Hillis, Rev. L. B. Wickersham, Oliver W. Stewart, Reverend Father McCorry, Mrs. Carrie L. Grout, Miss Mabel C. Church, Miss Hannah Cundiff, Mrs. Mary Hill Hull, William E. Morgan, Rome Frick, Montraville Flowers, Ross Crane, Naotaro Otsuka, Mrs. Isabel G. Beecher, and Dr. Herbert L. Willett.

MONONA LAKE, WISCONSIN

The Monona Lake Assembly opens July 21 and closes August 5. Recognition Day is August 3. An effort will be made at this Chautauqua to make the Round Table work as interesting as possible. Dr. Andrew R. Anderson of the Greek Department, University of Wisconsin, will give six talks on Greek subjects: Greek Architecture, Greek Literature, etc.

Chautauqua Special Courses*

For the Use of Study Clubs and Reading Circles

A READING JOURNEY THROUGH ENGLAND

Prepared by Miss Susan Hale.

Since much reading is necessarily required for this course, the books are arranged in five groups, for the reading of each of which a seal will be awarded. It is to be noted, however, that Section 1 must be taken first. Study pamphlet covering entire course, $1.00.

Seal for written review work—Silver Octagon.

REQUIRED BOOKS:

Section 1.

Hand Book of Great Britain. Baedeker. (Routes included in lessons 1 and 2.) $3.00.

†Medieval History. W. S. Dalgleish. (Periods of English History.) 80 cents.

Hand Book of English Cathedrals. Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer. $2.50.

Primer of English Literature. Brooke. 35 cents.

The A. B. C. of Gothic Architecture. Parker. $1.25.

Encyclopedia article on Exeter.

The Idylls of the King. (Selections. See pamphlet of suggestions.) 35 cents.

Section 2.

Hand Book of Great Britain. Baedeker. (Routes in lessons 3, 4 and 5.) $3.00.

King Lear.

Encyclopedia articles on Colchester and The Cinque Ports.

Walks in London. Hare. 2 Vol. $2.50.

History of the University of Cambridge. Mullinger. 80 cents.

Section 3.

Hand Book of Great Britain. Baedeker. (Routes included in lessons 6, 7 and 8.) $3.00.

Characteristics of English Poets. Minto. $1.50.

†Any standard English History may be substituted for the one suggested.

Encyclopedia articles on York and Oxford.

Tom Brown's School Days. Hughes. 60 cents.

The following plays of Shakespeare. Richard II., Henry IV., Henry V., Henry VI., Richard III., Henry VIII. (Rolfe edition.) Each, 56 cents.

†Reformation and Revolution. Dalgleish. (Periods of English History.) 80 cents.

Section 4.

Hand Book of Great Britain. Baedeker. (Routes in lessons 9-12.) $3.

History of England. Vol. I. Macaulay. (First five chapters required.)

Historical Memorials of Westminster Abbey. Stanley. (Out of print.)

London. Baedeker. $1.80.

Encyclopedia article on Bristol.

†Great Britain and Ireland; Dalgleish. (Periods of English History.) 80 cents.

Macaulay's Essays: Milton. Burleigh. 35 cents.

Section 5.

Hand Book of Great Britain. Baedeker. (Routes in lessons 13-16.) $3.

Macaulay's Essays: Addison; Madame D'Arblay. 35 cents.

Annals of an English Abbey. J. A. Froude. $1.50.

Encyclopedia article on Carlisle.

The Four Georges. Thackeray. $1.25.

The Victorian Poets. Stedman. $2.25.

A STUDY OF THE ENGLISH NOVEL

This new course prepared by Miss E. P. Hammond, instructor in the University of Chicago, will meet a want felt by many clubs and circles. Under the plan outlined by Miss Hammond, the student will take up in succession seven typical English novels, studying their structure, the author's treatment of characters, the setting of the story, etc. As the course progresses, frequent com-

*For many of these courses study pamphlets are provided which outline the work in a series of lessons, giving review questions, topics and lists of recommended books. Full particulars as to fees, pamphlets, etc., will be found in connection with the announcement of each course. Graduates of the C. L. S. C. who pursue these courses receive seals to be added to their diplomas, in recognition of their work.

parisons will be made between the methods of the different novelists, and the student will find his critical faculty stimulated and his appreciation of the fine qualities of really great literature largely increased. This course will be a helpful antidote to the present day literary distraction from which so many people suffer in their zeal to keep up with the newest books, regardless of their value. Price of the study pamphlet, $1.00. Seal for written review work.

A READING JOURNEY THROUGH JAPAN

By Miss A. C. Hartshorne, author of "Japan and Her People." A comprehensive series of illustrated studies covering the entire Empire. Programs based upon these studies are arranged for reading clubs and supplemented by very full references to books upon Japan. A carefully annotated bibliography forms an important feature of the study pamphlet which has met with the cordial appreciation of many literary societies. C. L. S. C. members can take this work as a seal course, the reading of two books selected from the bibliography being required. The price of the pamphlet alone is 25 cents; for readers wishing the memoranda and list of books required for the seal, 50 cents.

A READING JOURNEY THROUGH KOREA

Special number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for August, 1905. By Dr. Arthur Judson Brown, whose discriminating studies of Asiatic problems in the *Century* and *Review of Reviews* have attracted a wide circle of readers. As a preparation for the Chautauqua "Reading Journey in China," to appear in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for 1905-6, these Korean studies will be most illuminating. Programs, bibliographies, review questions, etc., so successfully employed in other Chautauqua courses will form a feature of this Korean Reading Journey. Price 25 cents; with memoranda and book list for seal, 50 cents.

RUSSIAN HISTORY AND LITERATURE

Especially timely. Three courses, as follows:

1. A course prepared by Miss Isabel F. Hapgood, widely known as a student and translator of Russian Literature. Studies based upon:
   History of Russia. Rambaud, $2.
   Russia. D. Mackenzie Wallace, $2.
2. The above books and in addition:
   Empire of the Tsars and the Russians. A. Leroy-Beaulieu (in three vols. comprising, The Country and Its Inhabitants, The Institutions, The Religion). $9.00 ($3.00 per vol.)

These two courses are published in a study pamphlet of 72 pages, in which Miss Hapgood has mapped out the work in lessons, giving topics, bibliographies, discriminating suggestions, etc., as to the value of present day books upon Russia, many of which are quite unreliable. This study pamphlet will be of greatest service to any club wishing to make a really intelligent study of Russia. Price $1.00. Seal for written review work. Orange Circle.

3. An elementary course on Russia including a volume on Russian literature and two series of nine studies each, in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, supplied for $2, as follows:

Saxon and Slav, by Frederic Austin Ogg, comprising:

British Imperial Foundations. The Making of Great Britain. The Rise of the Russian Nation. Russia's Quest of the Pacific. England and Russia in the Politics of Europe. The Danger Line in Western Asia. The Lion and the Bear in the Far East. Two Imperial Creations. The Civilization Battle.

A Reading Journey Through Russia, by the following well-known writers:

The Polish Threshold of Russia, L. E. Van Norman. The Cradle of the Russian Empire, Isabel F. Hapgood. The Crimea and the Caucasus, G. F. Wright. Up the Volga, Isabel F. Hapgood. Russia's Holy City, Edmund Noble. A Visit to Tolstoy's Home, E. A. Steiner. The Capital of All the Russias, Edmund Noble. Western Siberia and Turkestan, G. F. Wright. Eastern Siberia and Manchuria, G. F. Wright.

A Survey of Russian Literature. Isabel F. Hapgood, 75 cents. This includes numerous selections from the works of leading Russian authors, many of them not otherwise accessible to the average reader.

THE CHAUTAUQUANS contain,

under the head of "Suggestive Programs for Local Circles," topics for papers and readings, special "Travel Club Progams," etc.—a wealth of material dealing with the very latest phases of Russian history. Seal for written review work. Orange Octagon.

A READING JOURNEY THROUGH FRANCE

The study pamphlet for this course includes the following nine articles as well as the programs and other helps. Fee, $1.00.

Seal for written review work. Violet Circle.

REQUIRED READINGS:

(a) Nine illustrated articles issued in pamphlet form by Chautauqua Institution comprising:

The Ocean Voyage. Mary E. Merington.

The Paris of Today. Madame Jeanne Marion.

Historic Architecture in Paris. Madame Jeanne Marion.

Art Life in Paris. Fanny Rowell.

The Suburbs of Paris. Frederick M. Warren.

The Paris Exposition. Thomas B. Preston.

Across Touraine. Irenæus Prime-Stevenson.

In Normandy. Irenæus Prime-Stevenson.

Around Brittany. Irenæus Prime-Stevenson.

(b) Three books and three magazine articles selected from the bibliography given in the study pamphlet.

FRENCH HISTORY

Prepared by Miss E. S. Davison. Study Pamphlet. $1.00.

Seal for written review work. Rose Star.

REQUIRED BOOKS:

The Growth of the French Nation. George B. Adams. $1.25.

Louis XIV. Hassall. (Heroes of the Nations.) $1.50.

The First Napoleon. John C. Ropes. $2.00.

France in the Nineteenth Century. Mrs. E. W. Latimer. $2.00.

FRENCH LITERATURE

Prepared by Miss Elizabeth Wallace, S. B. Study pamphlet, $1.00.

Seal for written review work. Yellow Shield.

REQUIRED BOOKS:

French Literature. Kastner & Atkins. $1.25.

The Song of Roland. Translated by Isabel Butler.

Molière. Trans. by K. P. Wormley. Vol. I. $1.50.

Racine. Trans. by Boswell. Bohn Library. 2 vol. $2.00.

Hernani. Victor Hugo. Bohn Library. $1.00.

French Poets and Novelists. Henry James. $1.50.

MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY

Prepared by the late Prof. H. B. Adams and Mr. G. Briggs Lynes, Johns Hopkins University. Study pamphlet. $1.00.

Seal for written review work. Light Blue Star.

Required Books:

History of Modern Times. Victor Duruy. $1.00.

The Era of the Protestant Revolution. Seebohm. (Epoch Series.) $1.

European History. Wakeman. (Periods of European History.) $1.40.

Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era. Rose. (Cambridge Historical Series.) $1.25.

AMERICAN HISTORY

Two courses prepared under the direction of the late Prof. H. B. Adams, Johns Hopkins University, and Prof. J. A. Woodburn, Indiana University.

FIRST COURSE—COLONIAL AND REVOLUTIONARY PERIODS

Study Pamphlet. $1.00

Seal for written review work. Scarlet Octagon.

Required Books:

The Colonies. Thwaites. $1.25.

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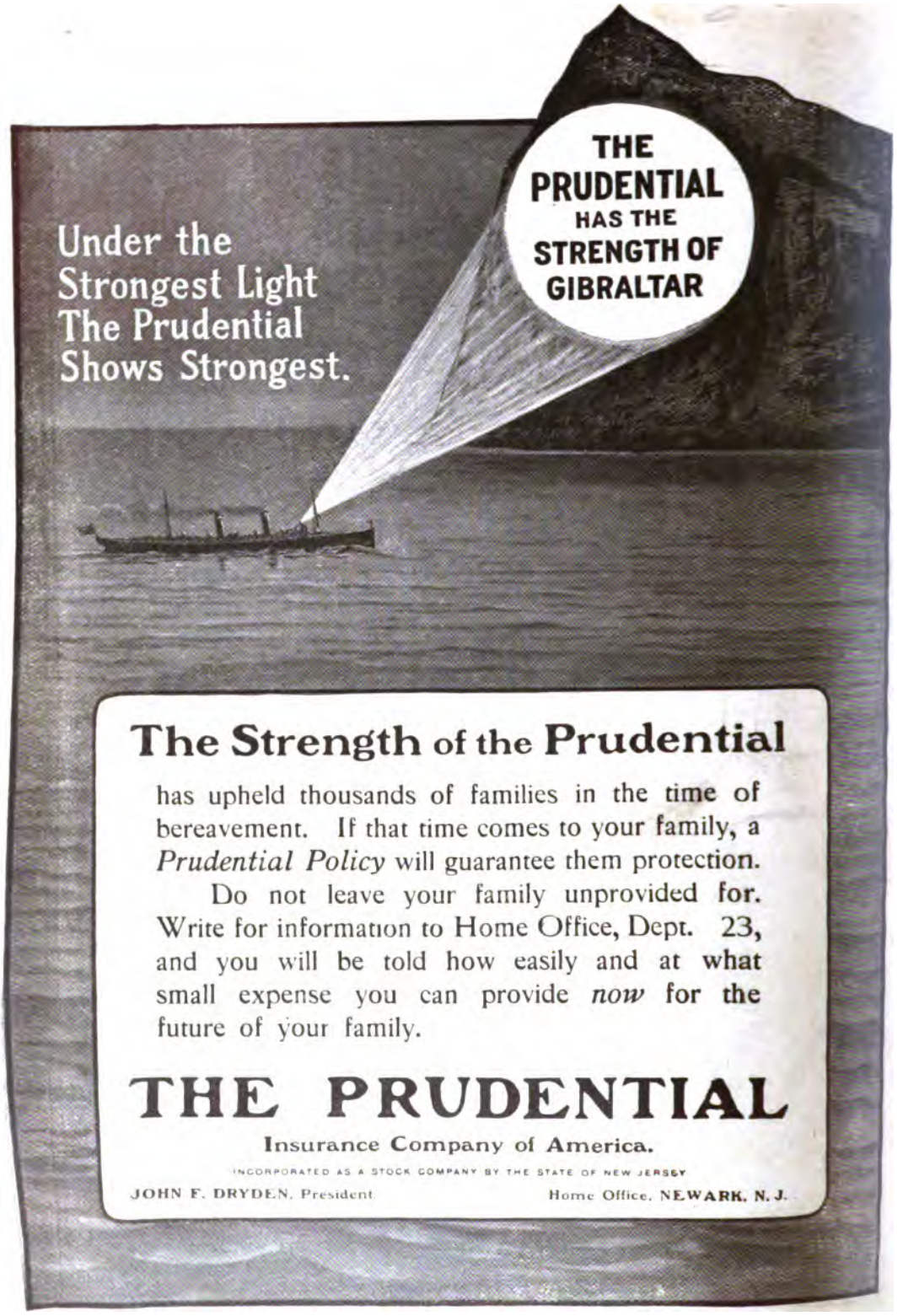

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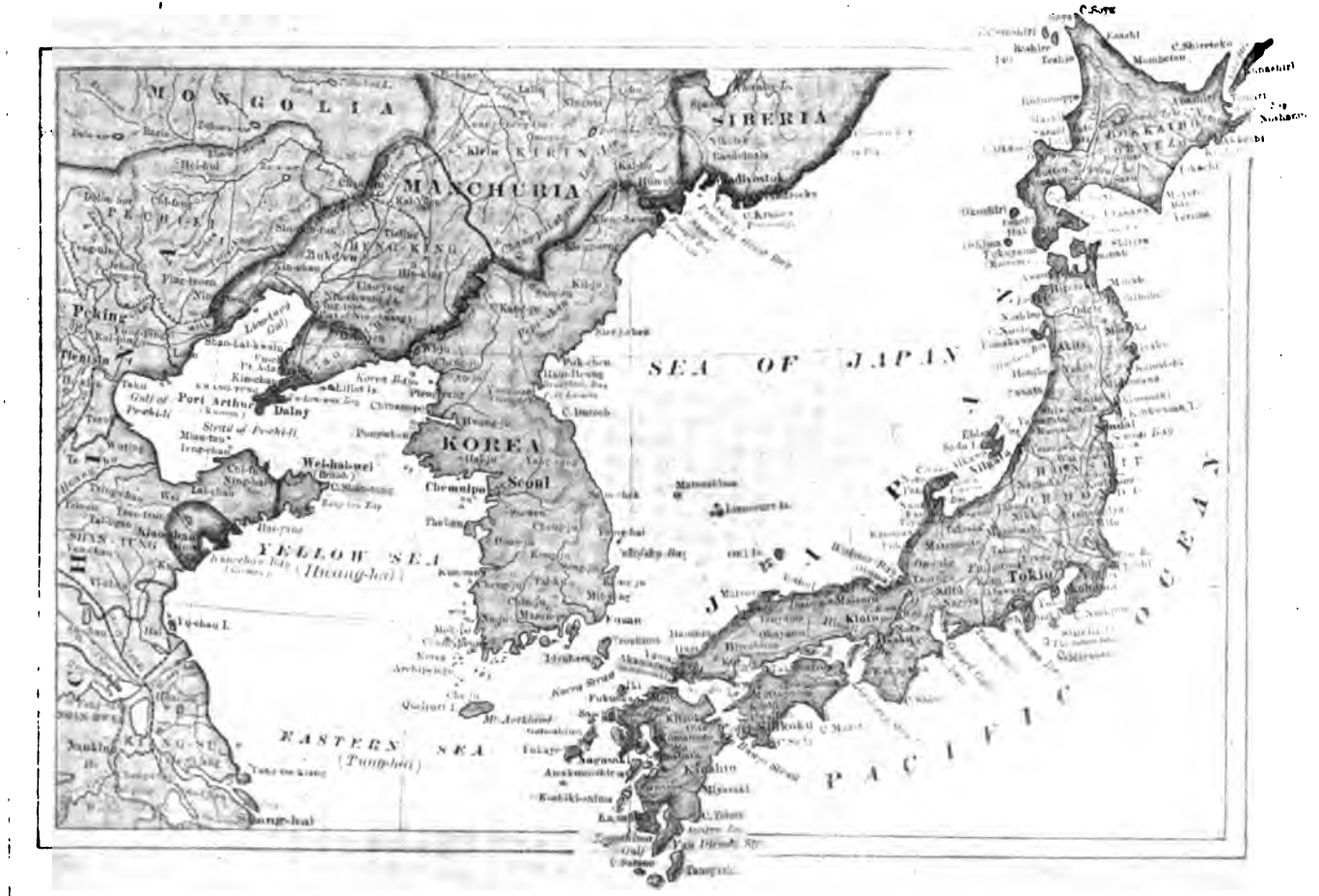


KOREA, THE PRIZE OF WAR

EXTERIOR OF RECEPTION ROOM, EMPRESS' APARTMENTS, EAST PALACE, SEOUL

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

VOL. XLI. AUGUST, 1905. No. 6.

AFTER a period of comparative calm, disorders of the most threatening character have broken out in Russia and not in any particular locality, but in several sections separated alike by distance, interest, language and race. The storm-center of late, it is true, has been in Poland (with Odessa challenging that title), where strikes, riots, revolutionary demonstrations, sanguinary collisions between workmen supposed to be excited and directed by political agitation, have been constant during June. At Lodz, a manufacturing city near Warsaw, there was an encounter which the correspondents described as worse than the St. Petersburg massacre of "Red Sunday" in January.

The violent strikes, though in all cases purely economic in origin, have assumed an anti-governmental character, owing, in the first place, to the brutality of the authorities and the military in dealing with the riotous workmen, and in the second place, to the general discontent that has been growing more and more acute. The various socialistic and revolutionary organizations have found the working classes more responsive to their propaganda than ever before, and in nearly every report of a strike of any importance the symptoms of revolutionary instigation and guidance are manifest.

In the Caucasus racial and religious controversies have produced a state that is tantamount to open rebellion. In Great Russia the peasants have renewed agrarian disorders and sacked landed estates. In several cities anti-Jewish disorders have occurred, while in other places the lowest elements of the population—the vagrants, semi-criminal paupers, etc.—have under official encouragement, it is believed, organized "patriotic" assaults on the disaffected students and professional persons. It is not too much to say that in some sections of the country anarchy prevails, anarchy qualified by official terror.

But undoubtedly the greatest symptom of all was the mutiny of the crew of the battleship *Kniaz Potemkin,* of the Black Sea squadron, and a torpedo boat, a mutiny which for a few days threatened to extend to other war ships and actually did extend to the *Gregori Pobiedonosetz,* though the facts as to this ship were never fully reported. The mutinous crew, according to the government's own version of the affair was under revolutionary influence and direction, and it is said that some of the sailors were educated terrorists in disguise. At any rate, the government was utterly bewildered and demoralized. It dared not order the other ships of the fleet to seize the mutinous vessel, for the other crews might not obey and that was an appalling contingency. The workmen of Odessa were in sympathy with the insurgent sailors, and for at least twenty-four hours the troops in the city were helpless, as the war ship and the strikers acted in perfect accord. Order was restored in Odessa after much rioting and destruction of property by arson and pillage, and the battleship, after a cruise without a precedent in history surrendered to the Roumanian government on condition that the sailors should be treated

mans, and finally because German naval progress is recognized as a menace to English interests in the Far East and elsewhere. The British press, throughout the crisis, warmly supported France and bitterly assailed Germany—a fact which has not tended to mollify the Teutons.

THE LATE MAXIMO GOMEZ
Cuban patriot and General.

No greater calamity to civilization could be imagined than a conflict between Germany on one hand and France and England on the other. From such a tremendous conflict even the most aggressive military ruler cannot but shrink. It has happily been averted, and the Moroccan question will be settled in a friendly and rational way. France has displayed wisdom and moderation; the idea of "revenge" no longer dominates her leaders.

The Swedish-Norwegian Trouble

Peaceful revolutions have occurred in the course of historical events, but there are few real precedents for the extraordinary manner in which the dissolution of the century-old union between Sweden and Norway has been (or promises to be) brought about. The act of union was adopted in 1815; the actual union had been effected in the previous year, after a war and a very short independent career for Norway. The union, it is not denied, was intended to be perpetual and indissoluble, though each of the kingdoms was assured full autonomy in internal affairs. One king, one department of foreign affairs, one foreign policy, but two separate and distinct governments were provided for by the organic constitution. There seems to be no doubt that no reservation was originally made with regard to the right of either country to secede without the free consent of the other.

The Norwegian people and Storthing (parliament), however, contend that King Oscar, in refusing to respect their unanimous will, in vetoing the bill for the establishment of a separate consular service for Norway and in persisting in that attitude, notwithstanding the fact that the cabinet had declined to countersign the veto, and the further fact that no other ministry could be formed which would agree to promulgate and give effect to the veto—in doing these and other things the king had violated his obligation to Norway and practically ceased to exercise the powers conferred upon him. Norway does not admit that her action in dissolving the union was revolutionary, but Sweden and the world at large so regard it.

However, the coup was not wholly unexpected. For many months the separate consular service question had been a sort of apple of discord between the two countries, and several efforts at adjusting the difficulty had failed. Sweden had long before recognized in principle Norway's right to a separate service, but many practical questions had to be settled and agreement had proved well nigh impossible. Norway's interests are mainly commercial and marine; Sweden's chiefly agricultural. Norway's fiscal policy is based on free-trade principles; Sweden's on protectionist. These differences gradually widening, could not fail to produce the situation we now see between them. It may be added that the union never really satisfied Norway's national needs and aspirations. There was constant friction and irritation, and for a long time serious students have been predicting either a new basis for it or separation.

After the adoption of the secession resolution King Oscar protested against it with grave dignity, but neither he nor the people of Sweden so much as suggested coercion—the use of force to keep Nor-

way in the union. The vital and critical problem was referred to the Swedish parliament in the belief that a plan for separation satisfactory to both kingdoms would be evolved. The powers have maintained a neutral attitude, neither recognizing Norway as a sovereign State, nor intimating that recognition would be refused. Norway, with calmness and self-restraint deserving of admiration, refrained from unnecessary affronts or provocation, and did not ask the powers for recognition. After the Swedish parliament met and organized, the King himself, in a moving speech, advocated the adoption of a concilitory policy and the passage of a bill to authorize negotiations with Norway looking to amicable and "constitutional" separation. No doubt this will be the outcome, and the dissolution of the union may be followed by an offensive and defensive alliance between the former partners, with Denmark, possibly, as the third party to the alliance. A stronger Scandinavia will be the result.

Arbitration Conference

When the eleventh annual Lake Mohonk conference on international arbitration met in June, the world-situation politically, was sufficiently disheartening, apparently, to render arbitration talk an idle pastime. The battle of the Sea of Japan had just been fought and St. Petersburg depressed and embittered by one of the most crushing disasters recorded in history, scorned all suggestions of peace. Russia, the talk was, must fight on and retrieve her loss of prestige and military standing at any cost in blood, life and treasure. In Western Europe trouble was imminent between Germany and France over Morocco, the emperor of the former country declining to recognize the superior and privileged position of the latter in the Moorish kingdom, and prepared to accept all consequences of that attitude.

The advocates of peace and reason assembled at Lake Mohonk were not unduly influenced by the seemingly untoward developments. They dwelt on the steady progress of arbitration in the past and the certainty of ever greater progress in the future. They indulged the reasonable hope that the terrible and sanguinary conflict in the Far East, instead of stimulating militarism and belligerency and aggression, would mitigate and check these evils. The logic of events has already in a large measure justified their hopeful view.

THEOPHILE DELCASSE

French Foreign Minister who recently resigned.

During the year covered by the report read by Secretary Benj. F. Trueblood to the conference no fewer than twenty-two general treaties of arbitration had been signed. The total number of such treaties is now thirty, practically binding the European nations in bonds of peace for a period of five years. In addition many special treaties providing for the arbitration of various boundary and pecuniary controversies had been negotiated, and several are in process of negotiation.

Much has been done towards substituting conciliation, reasonable discussion and the spirit of give-and-take for the arbitrament of the sword in international disputes, but much remains to be done and it is not wise to minimize the difficulties in the way. Mr. Trueblood mentioned the following as the important things to be kept in view and gradually brought about: the bringing of all Central and South American States into The Hague Court; the conclusion of ageneral treaty of arbitration among all independent nations of the world; extension of The Hague Court to cover more classes of cases; creation of a congress of nations to meet at stated periods for discussion of all impor-

tant international questions; instruction of the public mind that there are no differences between nations which cannot be honorably and peaceably adjusted.

Some of the distinguished speakers at the conference, dealt with questions that are still academic and remote. Thus Justice Brewer of the Federal Supreme Court thought that in the future an international police force would be created to compel obedience to arbitral awards and that the nations would boycott, not only diplomatically, but industrially, any recalcitrant power that might repudiate an award.

So far as immediate work and present duty are concerned, the speakers agreed that the all-important thing was to educate and develop a public opinion opposed

THE LATE JOHN HAY
From a bust by St. Gaudens.

to war and earnestly favorable to arbitration. The destinies of the world are controlled by democracies, not by kings, and where the people are really averse to war, their rulers will manage to keep the peace.

The power of public opinion has recently been illustrated afresh in Russia. The people have long demanded peace, and even the autocratic government was unable to suppress the agitation.

The "Santa Fe Case"

The "Santa Fé case," so-called, has attracted national attention chiefly because its former vice-president, Mr. Paul Morton, has been Secretary of the Navy. The personal aspects of the sensational affair do not concern thoughtful students of American politics, but the question involved therein is undoubtedly of fundamental importance. It may be stated as follows: Where there is clear evidence of violation of law on the part of a corporation, and where the situation is such that officers of the corporation, if convicted of such violation, would be liable to punishment, is it proper for the executive department of the government, bound as it is to execute the law faithfully and impartially, to ignore the question of personal responsibility of officers while proceeding against the corporation?

Now, a corporation cannot be imprisoned. It can be fined, and for certain offenses, dissolved. That the possibility of having to pay a fine of a few hundred (or thousand) dollars ever has acted or ever will act as a deterrent in the case of rich and powerful corporations, no one will seriously contend. That the imprisonment of captains of industry where the law warrants it would prove salutary and effective as a check upon lawless conduct no one will deny. In the Santa Fé case the government has refused to proceed against individuals, contrary to the advice of the able and independent attorneys it had employed for the specific purpose of investigating the "case" and recommending suitable legal action, though it is admitted that the corporation directed by these persons is guilty of a legal offense and of contempt of court. The government says that there is evidence against the corporation but not against any particular officer thereof, and that it would

be unfair and improper to accuse men of crime in the absence of direct evidence connecting them with such crime. But the plea is so superficial and fallacious that even strong partisans of the administration have not hesitated to attack its attitude with vigor and warmth.

The facts of the case referred to, are, briefly, as follows: The Santa Fé railroad was enjoined by a federal court from paying rebates or departing from its published schedules. The injunction was disregarded—the payment of illegal rebate to a particular corporation was continued for many months. Mr. Morton was during that time vice-president of the company, and when the fact of the violation became known, Mr. Morton meantime having been appointed secretary of the navy, the press of the country raised a loud demand for prosecution. The Attorney-General, loath to pass upon a case in which a cabinet colleague seemed *prima facie* implicated, requested Messrs. Judson Harmon (former Attorney-General) and F. N. Judson to make a thorough inquiry into the facts of the case and fix responsibility with a view to judicial proceedings. These eminent attorneys easily obtained evidence against the Santa Fé company, but they did not and could not obtain any evidence against any particular persons acting for the corporation. They accordingly advised the institution of proceedings against the officers of the company, to bring them into court and obtain the evidence. These proceedings, they said, would in effect be a request for an *explanation* and not an accusation; there was nothing extraordinary about the method recommended, it was the *usual* method in cases of that sort and it gave innocent officers the opportunity to show that they had not ordered or connived at the offense. They argued that when a corporation is guilty, the clear presumption is that its principal officers are guilty, and they added:

The evils with which we are now confronted are corporate in name, but individual in fact. Guilt is always personal. So long as officials can hide behind their corporations, no remedy can be effective. When the government searches out the guilty men and makes corporate wrongdoing mean personal punishment and dishonor, the laws will be obeyed.

No, said the government, produce the evidence first and we will prosecute. Therefore the special attorneys resigned.

The consensus of opinion is that they were right and the administration wrong — that the method proposed by the latter is absurdly inadequate and impotent.

ELIHU ROOT
New Secretary of State.

Immigration and Labor

The immigration figures of the past several months have revived the agitation for a stricter law regulating the admission of aliens. The present rate of immigration especially from Italy, Russia and Austro-Hungary, is unprecedented, and it is seriously asked whether the country can assimilate a million or more immigrants every year. Already all sorts of suggestions as to the form of the needed restriction are being put forth. There is less talk than usual, it is true, about an educational test, for it is perceived that some of the least desirable newcomers would gain entrance under such a test while many perfectly honest, industrious and thrifty persons, in whose case ignorance or illiteracy is a misfortune rather than a fault would be excluded.

In Washington, it is reported, the proposals that have found favor and that may be recommended to Congress are these: the increase of head tax from $2 to $25, and a provision arbitrarily limiting immigration in any one year to a certain num-

ber, perhaps 300,000 or 500,000. Neither plan is free from difficulties. The higher tax would prove practically prohibitive to tens of thousands of peasants and laborers, who, on the average bring with them not more than two-thirds of the amount named. It would be easier for the undesirables, the dishonest and scheming and shifty, to obtain the necessary sum than for the honest poor. The arbitrary limitation would result in discrimination against certain nations who send us few immigrants and who ought not to suffer because other nations, by their political and economic policies and legislation, drive hundreds of thousands to seek opportunities and personal safety in the United States.

PAUL MORTON
Chairman Equitable Life Assurance Society.

In addition to such objections to proposed anti-immigration measures, an important and rather new factor in the situation is the sentiment of the whole southern section of the country. The South does not favor further restriction of immigration. It distinctly opposes the movement, calls it sectional, selfish, and narrow. The North and Middle West, it says, have more laborers than they need, but the South is suffering from chronic undersupply of skilled and unskilled labor. Farmers, planters, factory owners, railroads, are constantly advertising for "help" and meet with no adequate response. As a result, land is left uncultivated, opportunities are neglected, natural resources remain unutilized, and mills and factories are obliged to curtail production. An Alabama business-man was recently quoted as saying that in his state there were two jobs for every capable workman, and an industrial periodical published at Baltimore added to this "and the same situation exists practically all over the South."

It is certain that Southern legislators and employers and editors will oppose the Northern plans for the further restriction of immigration. The real trouble, according to them, is that the newcomers are not properly distributed—that they remain in cities already congested, where employment is scarce, instead of going West or South, where there is an active demand for their labor.

It should be added that the Commissioner of Immigration, Mr. Sargent, has been studying this problem of distribution and urging federal, state and corporate efforts to solve it along certain lines—for example, by establishing agencies and information bureaus at Ellis Island for the purpose of guiding immigrants to sections having land or labor to offer them and furnishing all the necessary information.

"Graft" in Politics and Business

The commencement oratory this summer has dealt largely with the question of corruption, avarice, "graft," and "tainted money" in American life. We have for years carried on war against the political grafter, the spoilsman, the job hunter, the inefficient employee. Reform organizations and leagues have been organized to purify municipal governments and secure the adoption of "business principles."

We are beginning to realize that there are business principles and business principles, that the evils of our politics are but the echo and reflection of the graft and corruption prevalent in "business." The events of the past year or two have been truly enlightening in this sense. The thoughtful Americans are inquiring whether the reform should not begin in the business sphere. Are the politicians bribing or corrupting the business men, or the business men the politicians?

Reflecting upon the startling insurance

scandals (ex-President Cleveland has used the word "stealing" to describe the frenzied high-finance operations of the Equitable Company's officers and directors); the colossal land frauds of Oregon, California, Nevada and other Far Western states, including the seizure of millions of valuable acres of the public domain; the franchise grabs or attempted grabs in the leading cities, the wholesale corruption of councils, it is impossible to avoid the conclusion that it is the greedy unscrupulous, money-mad business grafter who is responsible for our political dishonesty and rascality.

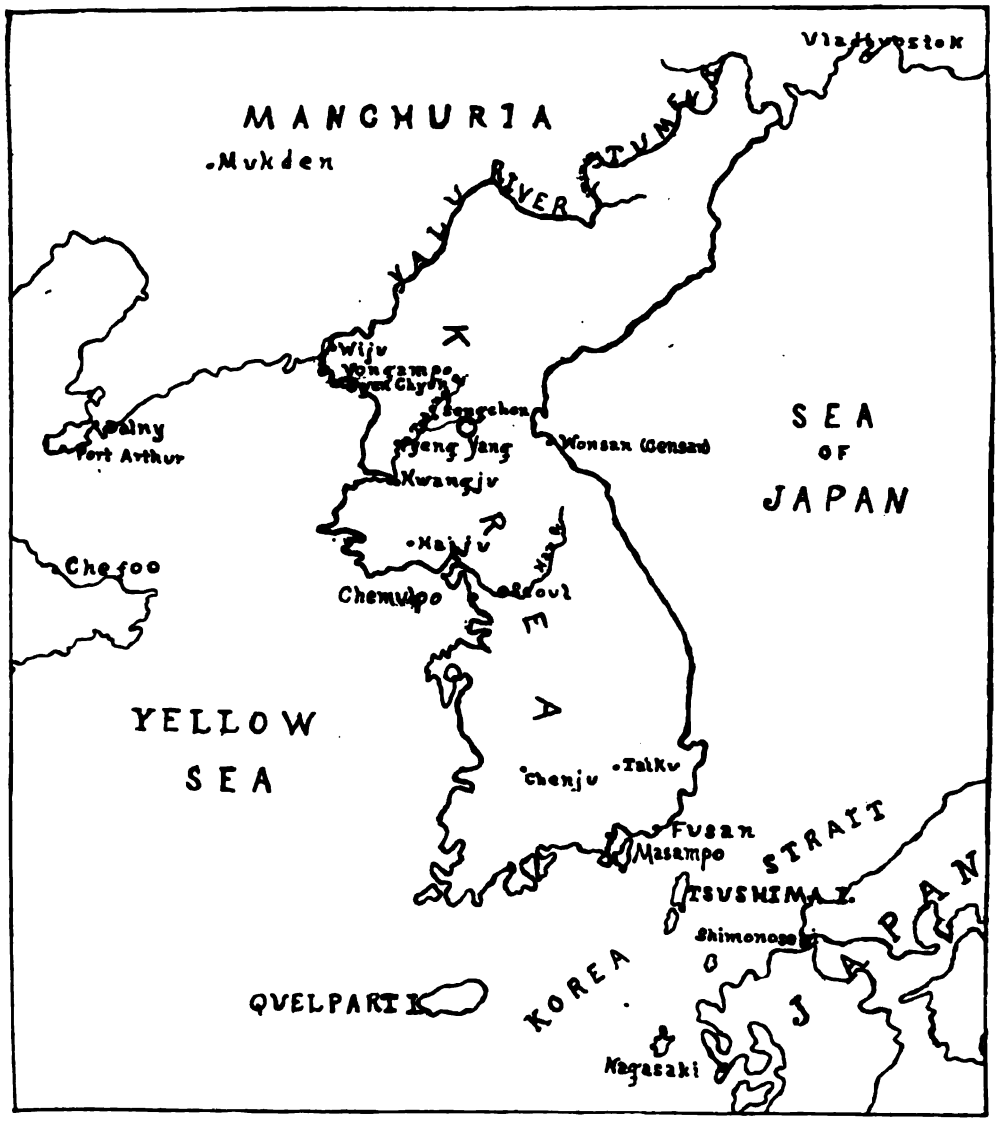
How petty and insignificant are the stealings of political spoilsmen beside the stealings of the land grabbers or of the insurance officers recently pilloried, and now threatened with civil and criminal proceedings! On what a scale the equitable party (according to the report of the New York superintendent of insurance, Mr. Hendricks, and to the previous report of the Frick committee of directors) have indulged in extravagance, waste and misuse of trust funds!

It is much easier to deal with official than with corporate graft and corruption. We elect our officials and we can control them while they exercise power by means of the referendum, the recall, and various "checks and balances." How are corporations to be prevented from abusing their powers and privileges? Government (state or federal) supervision is generally advocated, but we know how ineffective such supervision has been in the past. The New York insurance department has not prevented the reprehensible practises it now denounces, either because it has been ignorant of them or because it has lacked the independence and courage which the situation demanded of it. In the case of the land frauds official reports reveal connivance on the part of high government employees, some of whom are now under indictment on charges of complicity and guilty knowledge.

HER SKITTISH DAYS ARE OVER.
—*From the Chicago Daily News.*

President Roosevelt has advocated federal control of insurance companies doing interstate business, and in the Equitable scandals he sees another impressive argument for this remedy. It is probable that federal incorporation and control would prove more effective than state supervision, and we may see at an early day an attempt at congressional legislation in that direction. It is not certain however, that federal control of insurance is obtainable under the Constitution as it stands. Congress may regulate commerce between the states, but is insurance "commerce?" Are policies of insurance articles of commerce? There are clear decisions of the Supreme Court that the commerce clause does not embrace insurance, and unless that tribunal is prepared to modify its view and adopt a broader definition of the term "commerce" it would be idle to legislate with regard to insurance companies on the lines suggested.

Be this as it may, the American people are awake to the evils of frenzied finance and business graft, and the question of mitigating them supersedes every other. It is felt that rebates, restraint of trade, and descrimination in rates are in reality symptoms of the deeper disease—sordid and reckless commercialism. The underlying problem is how to place corporate and business relations on a higher plane —the plane of honesty and conservatism.



SKETCH MAP FOR "A READING JOURNEY THROUGH KOREA"

Suggesting outline which readers may sketch for themselves from standard maps of Korea, in more or less detail, as they prefer, in order to fix geographical points in mind.

A Reading Journey Through Korea

By the Rev. Arthur Judson Brown, D. D.

Secretary of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions, New York. Author of "The New Era in the Philippines," "New Forces in Old China."

THE tide of the world's travel has hardly touched Korea and yet the land of the Morning Calm is so near the great thoroughfares that it is easily reached. The increasing importance of Korea as the prize of war between Russia and Japan and the key to the mastery of the North Pacific is leading many to think of the question of access.

The American traveler for Korea can sail from New York, but it is not wise for him to do so unless he wishes to visit Europe and India en route and has plenty of time and ample funds, for the journey is long and expensive. But if one has leisure and money this route is very pleasant and profitable. In London, Hamburg, or Bremen, he may take a large and splendidly equipped steamer direct for Hong Kong, China, or he may cross Europe to almost any port on the Mediterranean from Marseilles on the west to Constantinople on the lovely Bosporus, whence steamers will take him past world-famous historical cities to Port Said at the entrance of the Suez Canal. Here he will meet the through British, German, and French steamers for the farther East. He can leave the steamer at Bombay and traverse India by rail to Calcutta or he can continue his journey by the Indian Ocean around the mighty peninsula to Ceylon, thence across to Singapore and up the China Coast, past Saigon, Hong Kong, Shanghai, and Tsing-tau, to Chefoo from which it is only an eighteen-hour ride across the Yellow Sea to Chemulpo, Korea. A first-class ticket by this route from New York to Chemulpo costs $431.25. The traveler who wishes to economize can journey with reasonable comfort second-class as far as Shanghai, and by doing so will reduce the cost to $284.85. Of course the expense of stops en route will be additional.

The usual route to Korea is the shorter and less expensive one from the Pacific Coast. The traveler has the choice of steamship lines from Vancouver, Seattle, and San Francisco. From the two former cities, the steamers run direct to Yokohama, Japan, usually taking a course so far northward on the Great Circle Track that it is not uncommon to sight the Aleutian Islands off the southwest coast of Alaska. Owing to the spherical form of the earth, this northerly course really shortens the trip, the distance from Vancouver to Yokohama being but 4,260 miles as compared with 4,791 straight across from San Francisco. In summer these northern lines are cooler and more comfortable, and the time is usually fourteen days. But in winter the weather is cold and often stormy. Most of the San Francisco steamers usually run so far south as to prolong the journey to 5,534 miles and eighteen days. The compensations, however, if one is not in a hurry, are summer skies and in particular a stop of twenty-four hours at Honolulu.

Still by any route, rough seas may ordinarily be expected for at least a part of the way, for the Pacific often belies its peaceable name. Fortunately the steamers are now excellent. A few of them indeed are among the largest and steadiest in the world, having a gross tonnage of 20,000 or even more and furnished with every modern convenience.

The traveler need not leave the steamer till it reaches Nagasaki at the extreme southwest point of Japan. The advan-

tage of this is that one can thus not only see Yokohama, Kobe, and Shimonoseki, at each of which the steamers stop from several hours to a day, but he can go through the famous Inland Sea of Japan, one of the most exquisitely beautiful bodies of water in the world. For the greater part of its length of 240 miles, the sea is studded with the islands of a magnificent archipelago, some mere barren rocks, others of considerable size clothed with rich vegetation and highly cultivated fields which are occasionally terraced with almost incredible labor up hillsides which rise almost from the water's edge, while towering magnificently above all are noble mountains.

Many travelers plan and prefer to break the journey at Yokohama by taking the train to Tokyo, the capital of Japan, which is only eighteen miles distant, and, after an interesting visit in that largest city of Asia, to take another train through the country, visiting Nagoya with its ancient castle and celebrated porcelain factories, Kyoto the former capital, Osaka the great manufacturing city, seeing scores of other cities and villages, and getting many glimpses of the rural life of Japan, to Shimonoseki or Nagasaki. From either of these ports comparatively small Japanese steamers cross the Korea Strait to Fusan, Korea, in about a dozen hours. We took the Royal Mail steamer from Nagasaki and found it rather cramped after the big trans-Pacific liners but nevertheless clean and comfortable.

By this route, the price of a first-class ticket from New York to Fusan is $297.70. There is an intermediate or second-class passage on some of the newer and larger steamers at little more than half of this rate, but it is not equal to the second-class on the best Atlantic steamers and it is doubtful wisdom to attempt anything but a first-class passage unless the most rigid economy is absolutely necessary.

The distances and the time by the eastern and western routes are approximately as follows:

	Miles	Days
New York to Southampton	3,086	7
Southampton to Port Said	3,215	12
Port Said to Bombay	3,059	10
Bombay to Colombo	875	4
Colombo to Singapore	1,673	7
Singapore to Hong Kong	1,440	5
Hong Kong to Shanghai	853	4
Shanghai to Chefoo	487	2
Chefoo to Chemulpo	270	1
Total	14,958	52
New York to San Francisco	3,270	5
San Francisco to Honolulu	2,089	6
Honolulu to Yokohama	3,445	11
Yokohama to Kobe (by sea)	348	1
Kobe to Nagasaki	389	2
Nagasaki to Fusan	120	1
Total	9,661	26*

The prudent traveler, however, even if he wishes to go straight through, will allow at least an additional week for inevitable delays at points of embarkation and for steamer stops at ports of call. In estimating the amount of money that will be needed, it is well to make a liberal allowance for all the incidental expenses that can be thought of in advance and then double it. Carry funds in the form of letters of credit issued by a reliable banker.

As for clothing, if the traveler goes by the western route, he will require about the same kind that he would wear for the corresponding season at home, since climatic conditions are not essentially different save for a few warmer days in the region of the Hawaiian Islands. If the eastern route is chosen, a larger supply of light clothing will be needed for the hot passage through the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean. In either case, the inexperienced traveler is more apt to take too much than too little. It is very unwise to cumber oneself with a lot of heavy baggage. A steamer trunk and a suit case will hold all that is really needed. Sensible people, however wealthy, dress modestly when traveling.

*Revised by the Raymond & Whitcomb Company.

Korea projects from the northeastern part of the continent of Asia in some such way as Florida projects from the southern part of the United States, though Korea is considerably larger than Florida. The whole peninsula has never been accurately surveyed and estimates of its area vary from 82,000 to 92,000 square miles.* It is therefore nearly as large as the states of New York and Pennsylvania combined. It is a small country as compared with the mighty empire of China which it adjoins, and yet it is of no inconsiderable size, having a length of 660 miles and a width of about 150 miles.

The coast line is irregular and varies greatly in configuration. On the eastern side it is rather precipitous and with a comparatively small tide, only about two feet. The west coast slopes more gradually and the tide is very high, sometimes as much as thirty-eight feet. The whole extent of coast line is about 1,740 miles. There are several excellent harbors, chief among which are Wonsan (sometimes spelled Gensan) on the northeast coast, Masampo and Fusan at the southern end of the peninsula, and Chemulpo, Chinampo, and Yong-ampo on the west coast, though not all of these harbors are of equal excellence, some being more or less exposed when the wind is in certain directions. Off the southwestern coast are a great many islands, and the channel between them is in some places so tortuous and the rocks themselves are so inadequately charted that navigation in heavy weather is often rather hazardous.

Lying between the thirty-fourth and forty-third parallels of latitude, the climate is that of the north temperate zone. The southern end of the peninsula is in the latitude of Maryland and the northern end in the latitude of Massachusetts, and the climate in general is not unlike that of the corresponding portion of the United States. A range of mountains runs irregularly the entire length of the peninsula with outflanking ridges of varying height. The mountain range is not a lofty one, few peaks reaching an altitude of 5,000 feet. In the north, however, Mt. Paik-to-san (Ever White Head peak) towers to a height of 8,000 feet. It is, therefore, a famous mountain in Korea and is regarded with special reverence as sacred. It is an extinct volcano, and the crater is filled with water, forming a lake of great beauty and of unknown depth. Famous also are the Diamond Mountains in the province of Kang-wen, which Mrs. Isabella Bird Bishop so charmingly described in her book, "Korea and Her Neighbors."

The general surface of the country, therefore, save in a few places is much diversified. Korea is a land of mountains and valleys and streams, though there are very few important rivers. The Noc-tong River in the southern part of the country, the Han River in the central part, the Ta-tong in the northern, the Tumen on the northeastern Manchurian frontier, and the Yalu on the northwestern are the chief streams. The soil of the valleys is often rich and is capable of producing large crops. Rice and beans, being the staple food of the Koreans, are grown almost everywhere, and as the former requires land that can be flooded, the most highly cultivated areas are usually those in the lower parts of the valleys. The thrift of the Japanese or the Chinese or the pressure of a larger population could easily bring under cultivation the hillsides and many large areas which now lie idle. But as it is, of the 7,000,000 acres that could easily be tilled, only 3,185,000 are under cultivation. Indeed it is probable that the estimate of 7,000,000 acres of arable land is low, for that is less than seven per cent. of the area of the country, though large regions can never be cultivated on account of their mountainous character, there being no prairies in Korea.

*The Statesman's Year Book for 1904 gives the former estimate.

The Gateways of Korea

NINE cities of Korea have been formally opened to the world as treaty ports, namely, Pyeng Yang, Chinnampo, Chemulpo, Fusan, Wonsan, Kunsan, Mokpo, Masampo, and Songchin, and the Russo-Korean trading mart Kyen-heung. Each of these treaty ports is governed by a superintendent who has the rank of consul. The population of these treaty ports is naturally motley. Here one finds not only Koreans, but Japanese, Chinese, British, French, Americans, and, before the Russo-Japanese War, Russians. As in the treaty ports of other Asiatic lands, vice is conspicuous. While the foreign communities include some high-minded men, the majority are dissolute. The Koreans, too, are, save where they have come under the influence of the missionaries, apt to be a rough lot. The limitation of residence for foreigners is, however, merely nominal.

The approach from Korea to Japan is apt to be unpleasant. It is only a night's ride from Nagasaki or Shimenoseki to Fusan, but in my experience at least, the small, flat-bottomed steamer lurched and tumbled in a heavy sea to the utter demoralization of my whole internal economy. About nine o'clock the next morning, however, we anchored before Fusan and in spite of the effects of sea-sickness we could not but be impressed by the beauty of the scene. The waters of the bay were still and sparkling in the bright sunlight. On shore the hills rose with a solid look which was very grateful after the shaky experience of the night. From the mission buildings back of the town, white-robed figures could be seen hurrying toward the wharf where a sampan soon landed us.

Fusan really consists of two towns side by side, one the native Korean and the other the Japanese. The Japanese settlement is an old one, this having been naturally the first place in Korea where Japanese settled. During recent years, the Japanese interest in Fusan as a strategic port has rapidly increased so that the Japanese population now numbers about 10,000. It can hardly be called an ideal settlement and yet it is far more cleanly than the adjoining native town which, like most Korean towns, is exceedingly dirty, crowded, and unsanitary.

The Presbyterian Mission compound on the hill overlooking the city and the bay is like an oasis in a desert, clean, comfortable, and well-kept. It is not uncommon for travelers approaching Fusan on the steamers to arraign the missionaries for having selected the best site in the whole place and for having erected upon it the best buildings. As a matter of fact, when the missionaries went to Fusan, they found it practically impossible to secure a suitable site within the city for any price they could afford to pay, and they bought this land farther back upon the hillside because it was considered almost worthless at that time and could be had for a merely nominal price, $75. They erected upon it buildings which in America would be considered quite ordinary, just about such houses as are usually occupied by people in moderate circumstances in the United States. The contrast between these clean American homes and the miserable huts of the Koreans at the foot of the hill is indeed great. But surely an American missionary is not to be blamed because he does not wish to live in a dark, damp hut and surely it is altogether to his credit that he wishes to be decent and to set an example of neatness and comparative comfort to the swarming natives of the port.

The charge has often been made that the missionaries "own the most attractive and commodious houses in the foreign settlements." As a matter of fact

they do not own any houses at all, the houses being owned by the mission boards and costing, as I have occasion to know, but a moderate sum. I have seen most of the missionary houses in Korea. A few were built by wealthy relatives for particular missionaries, and it may be that superficial critics have these places in mind. But if so, they should be honest enough to explain that they are exceptions. Even these houses, however, cost only about $3,000, including land, while the average missionary residence is about like the home of a country clergyman or school teacher in the United States. The typical Protestant missionary is a man of education and refinement, and his wife is a woman of cultivation and good taste, and I do not deny that their dwelling often appears palatial in comparison with the wretched hovels in which the natives herd like rabbits in a warren. Shattered health and rapidly filled cemeteries have taught missionaries that if they are to live they must go a little apart from the nasty, malodorous, unsanitary human pigsty, with its rotting garbage and open cesspools, select a site high enough to afford natural drainage, and build a house with a sufficient number of cubic feet of space for the persons who are to occupy it. Then the natural taste of the American well-bred husband leads him to make a little lawn and set out a few flowers, while indoors his wife sensibly makes everything as cozy and attractive as she can with the means at her disposal. As it is supposed to be a home for life, articles by gift and purchase are gradually accumulated. It really becomes a pretty place and contrasting as it does with the miserable habitations of a heathen city, it attracts attention. But its attractiveness is not due to the lavish expenditure of money, but to the good taste and inventiveness of a cultivated, intelligent family.

The class which criticizes missionaries is well described by Dr. John B. Devins, the editor of the New York *Observer*, who writes of a young lady from New York, who with her mother and sister were fellow passengers from Japan to Korea:

> She was a bitter foe of missions and an avowed hater of missionaries.
>
> "I presume you have seen a good deal of mission work in Japan?" I ventured to suggest.
>
> "No, I have not. We have been in Japan four months, and I have been to church only once, and I am sorry I went then. Such a stupid sermon!"
>
> "Have you seen no mission work in Japan?"
>
> "None whatever, but I have heard enough about it from those who live there. I have no use for missions and missionaries. I will except two from that general statement, Dr. and Mrs. Paul Bergen of China; they are genuine, but as for the rest—Waiter, give me a glass of whiskey."
>
> "We do not sell it by the glass, only by the bottle."
>
> "Bring me a bottle of wine instead. No, I have no use for missionaries—nor do I wish to see any in Korea."
>
> So far as I could learn she kept entirely away from them there and elsewhere.

Dr. Devins, however, was at pains to visit the missionaries and to examine carefully their work and the conditions of their lives, and he says:

> "Our hearts went out in great sympathy to the missionaries laboring in Fusan, as they did later at Chemulpo, Seoul, and Pyeng Yang, and we said to each other: If a missionary is willing to spend his life in this country he is entitled to all the comforts that he can secure from his salary of ten or twelve dollars a week, and if he has a relative or friend who is willing to make life a little more endurable for him by sending him an organ or an easy-chair or even aid in building a better house than the Mission Board can provide, where he may preserve his health and even have a few of the comforts which his friends enjoy at home, we will say that he deserves it all: if the missionary is a woman, she deserves it still more."*

The American Presbyterians at Fusan have eight missionaries, an excellent hospital built by friends of the late Rev. Dr. Junkin of Montclair, New Jersey, and named after him "The Junkin Memorial Hospital." This institution should be visited by all means, and it will give the traveler at the very beginning of his Korean tour an oppor-

*New York *Observer*, June 9, 1904.

tunity to see something of the medical work which is doing so much for the sick and the suffering among the Koreans. Their neglect of all sanitary precautions, their filthy houses, their carelessness in food, their drinking from infected wells and streams, and their utter ignorance of the causes of disease combine to give every kind of malady a free course and the sufferings of the afflicted are often grievous. In these circumstances, the skilful, sym-

THE FIRST WARD OF THE FUSAN HOSPITAL

pathetic, and devoted missionary physician is like an angel of mercy. His power in alleviating pain and in healing pain and in healing diseases is miraculous in the sight of the people. They flock to him in great numbers. They submit willingly to the most painful operations and they reward him with a reverence which gives him great power over them.

Besides Dr. Irvin and his wife, there are three ordained Presbyterian ministers at this station who do a great work preaching the Gospel not only at the station chapel and in the city, but in long itinerating tours among the outlying villages. While there is not a large local Korean population, the country districts are thickly settled and the work of the station is largely that of itineration. The population of the province is estimated at about 1,500,000. The number of out-stations or places of regular meeting is given as twenty, six of these having been added this year. There are 159 communicants, of whom 59 were added during the year. The catechumens number 215, and there is a total of 609 adherents. Including both Missions, organized work has been developed in eleven counties of the thirty in the province.

The Australian Presbyterians also have a station at Fusan, and the visitor to their compound will find another small but devoted company of intelligent, consecrated, and useful workers. The Australian Mission in Fusan was founded in 1889 by the Rev. John Henry Davies and his sister. Other missionaries followed them and a considerable work has developed, though practically all of it is conducted from this center. The outlying field has been happily divided with the American Presbyterians, the latter taking the region north and west of Fusan and the Australians the region along the east coast.

Until this year, the traveler could conveniently remain only one day in Fusan while his steamer was unloading and taking on freight, for if he did not continue his journey in the evening on the same steamer he would have to wait an uncertain period for another one. The journey through the archipelago off the southwest coast was seldom pleasant, for the currents are swift and the danger from hidden rocks in that uncharted sea is not inconsiderable. Now, however, the Japanese have constructed a railway from Fusan to Seoul, and the traveler will be wise to leave his steamer at Fusan and, after he has completed his visit in that port, proceed northward by rail. He will thus pass through the very heart of the country, seeing much interesting scenery and several important cities en route.

He should by all means break his journey at Taiku, a hundred miles north of Fusan, and the largest city

between Fusan and Seoul. It has a population of 65,000, and is the capital and commercial center of the rich province of Keyen Sang which numbers 1,750,000 souls. Here he will find another company of American missionaries who will give him a hearty welcome and among whom he will find some cultivated people. The station was opened in October, 1897, by the Rev. James E. Adams with his wife and children. They journeyed in a Korean boat on the Noc Tong River. The current was too swift for rowing and they had to be towed, so that it took them two weeks to reach a point ten miles from the city. However, they pressed on, rented a native Korean house with its mud walls and lack of all comforts and began their work. In December they were joined by Dr. and Mrs. W. O. Johnson.

It was not easy to get a start. The loneliness and privations of the life at this inland city were exceedingly trying. Several times sickness prostrated some members of the missionary circle, in the fall of 1900 the physician himself being stricken with typhus fever which nearly ended his life. But the missionaries persisted with unfaltering faith and courage. After a time, another cheap hillside was bought and suitable buildings erected upon it, so that now the Taiku missionaries are more healthfully housed. Other missionaries have joined the original number, a handsome hospital has been built with funds provided by Miss Mary H. Wright of Philadelphia, and the missionaries are pressing a most successful work in all directions. In 1902, 177 adults had been baptized. In 1903 the number had increased to 477 and in 1904 to 780, an extraordinary record. The Christians and inquirers in Taiku and in the outlying villages which form the station field form no less than 34 distinct groups, several of which have erected their own chapels.

Here also the Japanese are pressing in, there being more than a thousand of them in Taiku. A few days may be very pleasantly and profitably spent in and about this growing city and then the traveler can take the train and journey on to Seoul.

If, however, the traveler prefers to go from Fusan to Seoul by steamer, he will land at Chemulpo, the port of Seoul. In 1882 it had nothing but a few straggling huts, but with the signing of the treaty that year, it immediately came into importance as it was the gateway to the capital. Angus Hamilton waxes enthusiastic about this place. He tells us that it has "imposing shops" and a "magnificent bund." But unless the traveler drinks something more stimulating than tea or Tansan water, he will not be disposed to call the shops of Chemulpo "imposing," or the bund "magnificent."

The water in the roadstead, for it can hardly be called a harbor, is

SAMPAN LANDING PASSENGERS FROM STEAMER

shallow and at low tide there is a wide expanse of mud flats. The steamers are obliged to anchor some distance from shore. The arriving boat is quickly surrounded by sampans, the flat-bottomed, clumsy boats which the Koreans scull with a single oar from the stern. If the tide happens to be high, the traveler can go in these sam-

VIEW OF A PART OF CHEMULPO

In the foreground are native huts. Back of these are houses belonging to traders and customs officials. The building on the hill is that of a mercantile company.

pans directly to the stone steps of the bund, but if it is low he may have to mount the back of a sturdy Korean porter who will wade with him through the mud. We were fortunate in finding the tide high. We quickly engaged one of the sampans which took the three people of our party, five trunks and several satchels for the total sum of 40 sen (20 cents). The foreign customs officer, with a politeness and consideration which New York officials might well imitate, pleasantly remarked that the object of the customs regulations was not to embarrass travelers, and he passed our luggage without opening it.

The population of Chemulpo is, as might be expected, decidedly cosmopolitan. The Koreans, who number 15,000 are the least attractive that I saw anywhere in the country, many of them being decidedly rough.

"Their coarse black hair was long and dishevelled, in some instances braided in a single pigtail, in most cases, however, tied on top of the head, where a careless attempt at a top-knot had been made, but ellocks straying around the neck and face gave a w ish and unkempt appearance."*

Being a port city and the gateway to the capital, there are usually several foreign ships of varying nationalities in the harbor so that one finds on shore not only the Koreans but a miscellaneous assortment of European sailors, while Chemulpo possesses both Chinese and Japanese colonies. There are stores here in which one can buy many kinds of supplies and there is a hotel, called "Stewards," kept by a Chinese, where one, if he is not fastid-

*Mrs. Underwood. "Fifteen Years Among the Top-Knots."

ious, can get something to eat and a place to sleep. Itai, the proprietor, "does all he can to make his guests comfortable and partly succeeds."*

The traveler will probably prefer to take the train at once to Seoul. A ride of an hour and three-quarters through a hilly, treeless, and sparsely settled region will bring him to the capital and he can soon be comfortably ensconced in a hotel, unless he is so fortunate as to have an invitation to the home of some resident foreigner.

The Methodist Mission in Chemulpo was started in 1889 with the location of a native worker. In 1891 a chapel was erected and in 1892 the Rev. George Heber Jones took up his residence and began to push the work with energy and success.

Both at Chemulpo and at Seoul the traveler will be amazed at the strength and endurance of the Korean porters. As we were making a journey that was expected to last a year and a quarter, we took with us not only small steamer trunks that could easily be carried wherever we went, but two large store trunks in which we kept extra supplies of clothing for various emergencies. These store trunks we ordinarily left at a port while we traveled through the interior. They were heavy, weighing between 200 and 250 pounds. The Korean porters, however, made light of them. Each porter was equipped with a wooden framework called a "jickie." It roughly resembles an inverted chair and is held on the back by straps or ropes which pass over the shoulders and under the arms. One of the porters would stoop while a friend placed that heavy trunk in the jickie, and then the porter with comparatively little effort would rise and jog along as far as we wished to go. In this way our trunks were taken from the waterside at Chemulpo to the railway station and then they were taken from the station in Seoul to the house more than a mile away at which we were to be entertained. I was rather dazed by the performance. I walked briskly myself and had nothing to carry, but the trunks were at the house within five minutes after our arrival, the charge being fifteen sen each or about seven and a half cents in our money. I wanted to hire a cart, as it seemed an imposition to have men carry such a load, but the porters preferred to carry the trunks. These men live on a diet of rice and beans with a few other vegetables and occasionally fish. They are usually of medium height. They wear short jackets and baggy trousers, both of white cloth which is always dirty. But the muscles in the calves of their legs and their arms and shoulders are mighty bulging knots as hard as iron.

Won-san, 150 miles northeast of Seoul, is the leading city on the eastern coast, with a population of approximately 15,000. The harbor is exceptionally good. The whole bay is about forty square miles in extent, with a depth varying from eighteen to thirty feet. Mountains in the rear and islands in front so shelter it that it is always safe. Port Lazareff, the northern arm of the bay, has for years been coveted by the

TRAVELER LANDING

Crossing flooded flats on bank of a river.

*Mrs. Bishop, "Korea and Her Neighbors," p. 31.

Russians as one of the termini of the Trans-Siberian Railway.

Not only as the entrance to northeastern Korea but as the nearest Korean port to the Russian base at Vladivostok, Won-san is a place of considerable political importance, while its relation to trade as the gateway from the Japan Sea to northern Korea has brought to it a considerable foreign colony. The Japanese far outnumber all the other foreigners combined and have built an unusually neat and attractive quarter. There are interesting shops, a bank, a customs building and schoolhouse and several other good buildings. Steamers run regularly from Won-san to Japan and China and the completion of the new railway to Seoul will open up a rich tributary country as well as give easy access overland.

"There is nothing sensational about Won-san. It has no booms in trade or land, but keeps the even tenor of its way. It is to me far the most attractive of the treaty ports. Its trim Japanese settlement, from which green hills rise abruptly, backed by fine mountain forms, dignified by snow for several months of the year, and above all, the exquisite caves to the northwest, where the sea murmurs in cool grottos, and beats the pure white sand into ripples at the feet of cliffs hidden by flowers, ferns and grass, and its air of dreamy repose—a land where it is always afternoon—point to its future as that of a salubrious and popular sanitarium."*

Dr. W. B. Scranton of the Methodist Mission in Seoul visited Won-san in 1886, and in 1892 W. B. McGill, M. D., opened a station which was transferred in 1901 to the Southern Methodist Mission as that Mission was already at work in the Won-san field and it was deemed unnecessary and inexpedient for both to occupy the same territory.

The Canadian Presbyterian Church sent missionaries to Won-san in 1897 who have developed their work throughout a considerable portion of the the northeastern country of Korea with stations at Won-san, Han-heung and Seng-chen.

*Mrs. Bishop, p. 176.

KOREAN SHOP

The People

THE population is variously estimated. The native census for 1902 placed it at 5,782,806, but this figure is preposterously unreliable. Taxes are assigned to the provinces on the basis of population, and for this purpose each magistrate is required to state how many people are under his jurisdiction. In order to make the taxes as low as possible, the magistrates lie egregiously, having no American ambition to make their cities appear as large as possible. Foreigners who have long resided in the country and who are thoroughly familiar with it estimate the population as at least 12,000,000 and some estimates range as high as 16,000,000.

The language differs in some important respects from both the Japanese and Chinese, though the written language chiefly used by the higher classes and in government correspondence employs Chinese characters. There is, however, a different character used among the common people and of late many official documents employ a combination of the two characters. The meaning of a word is largely influenced by inflection and termination. These terminations are very nicely graduated to represent variations in rank so that the Korean would use one termination in speaking to an inferior, another in addressing an equal, and still another in addressing a superior, while each of the three main divisions is subdivided in ways that are distracting to a foreigner who is endeavoring to acquire the language. The Protestant missionaries are virtually restoring, if indeed they may not be said to be creating, a native Korean language. Formerly the dialect in use by the common people was held in contempt and was never used in writing. There were hardly any books in the native Korean prior to the advent of the missionaries in 1884, and the few that did exist were of a low order. The missionaries have done much to give new dignity to this native dialect. They have translated the New Testament and many books into it, they have prepared grammars and dictionaries, and they are fast rehabilitating the language in some such way as Luther's translation of the Bible exalted the native German and as Wiclif's translation inaugurated a new era for English. It is coming into wide use and official papers are as a rule now published in both Chinese and Korean.

The people of Korea are usually characterized as weak. It must be confessed that they lack the energy and ambition of the Japanese and the industry and persistence of the Chinese. But while they can hardly be considered the equals of these more powerful neighbors, it must be remembered that for centuries their position has been unfavorable to the development of strength and character. A comparatively small nation hemmed in between warlike Japan on one side and mighty China on the other, the Land of the Morning Calm was doomed from the outset to be a tributary state. No possible development of their own resources could make the Koreans independent of their stronger neighbors, so that long ago they helplessly acquiesced in the inevitable. During all these centuries, they have become so accustomed to being pulled and hauled by contending masters, they have been treated so unjustly by those who dominated them and have been so ground down into utter poverty by the cruelty and greed of their own magistrates, that they have come to accept subjugation and poverty as the natural concomitants of their life. With no prospect of independence as a nation, their ruling classes have given themselves up to a life of indolence, self-indulgence, and dissipation.

Politically the country is divided into thirteen provinces and 339 districts, each province being under a governor and each district under a magistrate. With comparatively few exceptions, these provincial and district officers are weak, ef-

feminate, and corrupt. They appear to have no sense of responsibility for the wise administration of the interests committed to their care. They extort from their unhappy subjects all they can, and give practically nothing in return.

The people are taxed beyond all reason. Any man suspected of having property is liable to be thrown into a filthy prison on some trumped-up charge and held or perhaps tortured until he disgorges to the magistrate. Offices are sold to the highest bidder, or given to dissipated favorites who divide the proceeds. The courts give no redress, for the plunderer himself is usually both judge and jury. Oppression and official robbery destroy all incentive to accumulate property. A man has no motive to toil when he knows that an additional ox or a better house would simply result in "a squeeze" from some lynx-eyed official. The typical Korean lives from hand to mouth, not thinking of acquiring wealth because he knows that it would be taken from him even if he succeeded in getting it. So he cultivates only the rice and beans that he requires for food and devotes the remainder of his time to smoking and resting.

During our journey through the interior, we stopped one night with an intelligent looking Korean who lived in a modest house, kept only one ox and tilled but a few acres of land. My missionary companion, knowing him well, said to him, "Why do you not build a better house, keep more oxen and till more land?" "Hush," replied the frightened Korean, "it is not safe even to whisper such things, for if they were to come to the ears of the magistrate, I should be persecuted until he had extorted from me the last yen that I possess." In these circumstances it is not surprising that the superior power of neighboring nations has taught the Koreans dependence, that the cruel exactions of tax gatherers have fostered deceit, and that the certainty that the results of toil could not be enjoyed has begotten indolence.

The introduction of foreign goods is making the situation worse instead of better. The Koreans formerly grew their own cotton, and wove from it on hand looms the cloth for the ubiquitous white flowing garment of the common people, while the silk worn by the better classes was also produced at home. Now English cotton and Japanese silk are flooding the country and the indolent people find it easier to buy them than to make their own. In like manner they are buying other foreign goods—pipes, tobacco, lamps, and more and more of the utensils which they used to manufacture for themselves. But they have nothing to export to balance these imports. They are not an energetic or a manufacturing people like the Japanese. There are some mines and forests, but concessions to work the one and cut the other have been granted to American, British, and Russian companies and the product goes to foreign owners, while the price of the concession is squandered by corrupt officials, so that the people derive no benefit. Thus Korea is being drained of her money. It is all outgo and no income.

The condition of the country is reflected in the chaotic state of the currency. It is enough to give a foreigner nervous prostration. It is of two kinds, Korean and Japanese. The Korean coins are a large copper one, called a cash, with a square hole in the middle, and considered as one "cash" in the country and five "cash" in Seoul, but having the same purchasing power in both city and country; a smaller copper coin of the same value, a copper coin worth five country cash and twenty-five Seoul cash, and a nickel piece worth twenty-five country cash and a hundred and twenty-five Seoul cash. Many commodities, however, are estimated by the "yang," which is supposed to be one hundred cash of either kind, but is usually short two or three pieces. There is no Korean coin larger than the nickel piece and at the present rate of exchange one hundred

cents Korean are worth thirty-seven cents gold. February 12, 1901, a coinage law adopted the gold standard, but it was never carried into effect.

The Japanese pieces in circulation are a half penny, a penny and a two sen piece, all copper; a five sen nickel piece, twenty and fifty sen silver pieces, a yen in both silver and paper, and five, ten, and twenty yen pieces in both paper and gold, though the last mentioned is so far beyond the range of ordinary transactions that one is almost as helpless with it as if he had nothing at all. The gold value of all Japanese currency is about one-half its face value; that is, the yen or dollar, is equal to fifty cents gold.

The paper currency consists of notes issued by the Bank of Japan or its branch in Korea, the Dai-Ichi-Ginko. The bank is as solid as a rock, but when I traveled among the country villages, I found that no bills of any denomination were accepted. "How can a piece of paper be worth anything?" queried the simple-minded villagers. So we had to take a supply of copper cash which nearly loaded a donkey. Silver, however, was readily accepted and was so eagerly desired that, in Pyeng Yang, I had to pay two and one half per cent. premium to get a supply of yen pieces. But when I returned to Chemulpo the railway officials preferred bills and would only take my silver yen at ten per cent. discount, while in Seoul, the bank accepted them at ninety-seven cents each. Some time before I die I hope to have leisure to figure out just what my Korean expenses really were.

The general poverty appears in the architecture. In the more pretentious buildings, as in the Imperial Palace and the yamens of the governors and magistrates, it follows Chinese lines. But however wonderful they may be in the eyes of a Korean, to a foreigner they are humble enough. A country merchant in America lives in a better house than the Emperor of Korea, while hundreds of stables at home are as attractive as the official residence of the governor of a province. The buildings are not only plain, but dilapidated in appearance. It

WOMEN POUNDING RICE

never occurs to a Korean to make repairs, and so on every side and even in palaces and temples one sees crumbling walls and dirty courtyards.

The houses even in the largest cities are of one story. The typical home, if such a rude and dismal affair can be called a home, is a rude but strong framework of poles, always crooked, for straight trees are rare. On the sides, the poles are woven together with millet stalks or brush fastened together with straw ropes and plastered with mud. The roofs in cities are covered with ponderous curved tiles, but in the villages they are always thickly thatched with rice straw. The interiors are gloomy and unwholesome, the windows, if there are any, being small and covered with thin but tough oiled paper which admits a dim light but no air. The doors are so low

A KOREAN RESIDENCE OF THE BEST CLASS

that the American will inevitably bump his head at every entrance unless he keeps his wits about him. The floor is usually the beaten, dusty earth with a few mats which are literally alive with vermin. The fire is built outside of the house and flues run under the earthen floor. In this way the fire for cooking serves also to heat the room. But as the fire is usually kept going in the summer to cook the rice and beans, the interior becomes like an oven. There are no beds in Korea and the unhappy traveler who has not brought a cot with him must sleep as the natives do upon the floor. Half-boiled by the heat and plentifully bitten by the swarming vermin, he is apt to feel in troubled dreams that he is lying on a hot stove and that the "lid is off." In the poorest class of houses, there is only one room, but all who are able to afford it have in addition a sarang, a kind of sitting-room, which opens on the street and which is used by the men. Here, also, guests are entertained. The part of the house which is occupied by the women is called the anpang, and no men, except members of family, are ever admitted. There are, of course, some houses that are roomier, but as a rule the well-to-do Korean does not build a higher house, but simply adds other rooms and courtyards and perhaps puts on a tile roof. But rich or poor, the house is more or less fully shut off from public view. If the owner is able, he does this by a wall, if not, he constructs a screen of bamboo or millet stalks.

The prevailing wretchedness is so great and the impoverishment of the land so apparently hopeless that one wonders how long human nature can endure such a state of society. Anglo-Saxons would not tolerate it a month. But these stolid Oriental grown-up children eat their rice and take their hard lot as indifferently as they can, while the Emperor borrows and the officials steal to keep up appearances. Few of the higher classes appear to discern the coming storm, and those who do, shrug their shoulders in the spirit of "after us the deluge."

Among so many as fourteen or fifteen millions of people, there are of course some turbulent elements, while the most patient of men will sometimes turn upon their oppressors. The Tong-haks represent both classes. Some of the mem-

KOREAN GRAIN SHOP, SEOUL

bers of this famous society are mere robbers, but many are men who have been goaded to desperation by wrong and oppression and who have caught a glimpse of a better day. It has adherents in various parts of the country and it takes advantage of every occasion to stir up trouble. The Tong-hak proclamations usually state in plain language the grievances of the people, arraign the magistrates as cruel and corrupt and call for reforms in every department of the government. Almost every year and sometimes several times a year, revolutionary outbreaks occur and occasionally they reach formidable proportions, as in the great uprising of 1894. There is much in the Tong-hak movement to stir the interest if not the sympathy of the student. It began, like the Tai-ping Rebellion in China, as a religious reformation. Its founder, Choi Chei Ou, who had seen something of the Roman Catholic missionaries and had vaguely grasped some of their teachings, alleged that he had a vision in 1859 at his home in Kyeng Chu in southern Korea. He forthwith proclaimed a new faith which should include the best elements of Confucianism, Buddhism, Taoism, and Romanism and which he called Tong-hak or Eastern Learning. Followers multiplied. Persecution naturally followed. Loyal at first to the dynasty, the hostility of the government and the sorrows of the people developed the Tong-haks, like the Tai-pings in China, into revolutionaries. With all their errors, the Tong-haks represented the blind but earnest groping of Korea after better things.

"It is impossible not to feel a sense of deep pity for a movement like this of the Tong-haks. It is one of many movements of men whose minds have expanded to take in new thought, who have struggled hopelessly with the social conditions which held them and have accepted persecution and death and have failed, without even the consolation of knowing that the world has watched them and will remember them. There must have been scores of such movements in the unrecorded history of Asia during the centuries that have passed."*

Of opposition to foreigners there is very little in Korea. True, only a generation ago (1866) there was a furious anti-foreign outbreak and about 20,000 Roman Catholic Christians are said to have been killed. But now the overt dislike of foreigners is practically confined

*Speer, "Missions and Modern History," Vol. II, p. 359.

to a few officials and the old, conservative, Confucian scholar class, which is naturally more or less sullen under the spread of new ideas. The attempt to create an anti-foreign crusade in the winter of 1900-1901 resulted in an inglorious

KOREAN SCHOLAR

fiasco. There was indeed a temporary commotion when it was discovered that on November 20, 1900, a secret circular edict had been issued ordering an uprising against foreigners on the sixth of December following. Even in the most peaceable of civilized lands there are lawless characters who are always ready for violence, and Americans who recall the readiness with which a mob forms in our own cities will understand how easily trouble might have followed such an edict in Korea. But the alert and efficient American minister, the Hon. Horace N. Allen, took such prompt and decisive measures that the plot resulted in "nothing more than a palace intrigue" by two corrupt schemers. Shortly afterward, Kim Yung Chun, one of the officials who had signed the edict, fell into disfavor on account of complications with the king's favorite concubine and on March 18 he was executed. Some had alleged that the edict was forged but before Kim's death he confessed that the edict was genuine. For a time the situation was distinctly delicate, especially in the south where Japan had some object in inciting sedition in order to give her an excuse for landing more troops to protect her interests and especially the telegraph line and the projected railway to Seoul. But the alarm quickly subsided.

And yet trouble is always a possibility in an Oriental country. Extortion and misgovernment will occasionally goad even an apathetic people to deeds of unreasoning fury, and when they once begin to "run amuck," they are not apt to distinguish between friend and foe. For example, several years ago because the Roman Catholic priests of Quelpart allowed some of their converts to serve as collectors of the increased taxes, the populace arose in a frenzy and murdered the whole Christian community. The ringleaders were being tried in Seoul during my visit in 1901. No Protestants were involved. Drought sometimes increases the general unrest and the desire of foreign nations to have some excuse for further interference has been a fruitful source of trouble, as secret emissaries have not always hesitated to foment disturbances.

Our treaties with Korea do not recognize the right of Americans to reside permanently or to own property outside of the cities that have been formally opened to trade. By Article IV, Section 6, of the treaty with England, it is

stipulated that "British subjects are also authorized to travel in Korea for pleasure or for purpose of trade, to sell and transport goods of all kinds, except books and other printed matter disapproved by the Korean government, and to purchase native produce in all parts of the country under passports which will be issued by their consuls and countersigned or sealed by the Korean local authorities. These passports, if demanded, must be produced for examination in the districts passed through." Violation of this provision involves a penalty of $100. "The most favored nation clause," of course, extended this privilege to Americans. But as recently as 1890 an American desiring to travel in the interior could only secure a passport by taking oath that he would not proselyte, and that his object was simply travel and study. France, however, obtained a more liberal treaty, and the American minister, by taking advantage of the ever-convenient "most favored nation clause," secured release from this oath for American citizens and the right to reside wherever any other foreigners reside. As the Japanese are ubiquitous in the land of the Morning Calm and as they boldly acquire property wherever they please, that old stand-by, "the most favored nation clause," enables us to claim for Americans the toleration which is perforce accorded the belligerent Japanese. Korea, therefore, is practically an open country.

There is no probability that the present privilege of virtually free residence and ownership will be curtailed, especially now that Japan is in control. Korea can never be a hermit nation again. But it is just as well to remember that foreigners living and prosecuting missionary work outside the treaty ports are doing so without the sanction of treaties, and that while they are not likely to be disturbed, they will be wise in avoiding as far as possible appeals to the Korean magistrates and to the American minister that are apt to force the legal recognition of a technically illegal residence.

Still from what I saw in many parts of the country, I got the distinct impression that the Korean people are naturally peaceable and kindly. We had some opportunity to test the feeling of the people, for we not only visited the cities of Fusan, Chemulpo, Seoul, and Pyeng Yang, but we took a journey of 350 miles

A TONG-HAK CHIEFTAIN

through the interior in chairs, on ponies and afoot. We passed through scores of villages far from the beaten track of travel, ate in native huts and slept in native inns, with our luggage and supplies piled in the open courtyard. The people manifested great curiosity, following us in crowds through the streets, forming a solid wall of humanity about us at every step, and peering at us through every door, window, and crevice.

But not once was the slightest insolence shown and not a penny's worth was stolen on all that trip. Everywhere we were treated respectfully and with a kindly hospitality which quite won our hearts. There were indeed a few places where it was difficult to purchase supplies, but as a rule the best that a village afforded was gladly placed at our disposal, and while prices were never excessive, in several places the people refused to receive any compensation whatever. We usually sent word ahead, so that accommodations might be ready for us, and whenever we did so, groups would walk out several miles to meet us, sometimes in a heavy rain. The invariable salutation was a smiling inquiry, "Have you come in peace?" And when we left, the people would escort us some distance on our way, and then politely bid us good-bye in the words, "May you go in the peace of God!" It need hardly be said that these were usually Christians, but we saw multitudes who were not, and while the he then were noticeably more unkempt than the Christians, they, too, were invariably kind and respectful. He must be a hard-hearted man who could not love such a people and long to help them to higher levels of thought and life. They are not lacking in intelligence, and with a good government, a fair chance, and a Christian basis of morals they would develop into a fine people.

KOREAN GENTLEMAN

The position of woman is of course distinctly Asiatic. A missionary writes:

"In the higher classes etiquette demands that the children of the two sexes be separated after the age of eight or ten years. After that time the boys dwell entirely in the men's apartments to study and even to eat and drink. The girls remain secluded in the women's quarters. They are told that it is disgraceful even to be seen by males, so that gradually they seek to hide themselves whenever any of the male sex appear. These customs, continued from childhood to old age result in destroying the family life. A Korean of good taste only occasionally holds conversation with his wife, whom he regards as far beneath him. He rarely consults her on anything serious, and though living under the same roof, one may say that husband and wife are widely separated. The female apartments among the higher classes resemble, in most respects, the zenanas of India.

"Marriage is something with which a woman has little or nothing to do. After marriage, women are inaccessible. They are nearly always confined to their apartments, nor can they even look out in the streets without permission of their lords. So strict is this rule that fathers have on occasions killed their daughters, husbands their wives, and wives have committed suicide, when strangers have touched them even with their fingers. It is not proper for a widow to remarry. In the higher classes, a widow is expected to weep for her deceased husband and to wear mourning all her life. It would be infamy for her, however young, to marry a second time. Notwithstanding their degradation, there is a measure of consideration shown them.

"In cities and small townships it is considered a great offense against modesty and custom whenever a woman is met on the public streets in the daytime, and they quit their apartments hardly ever during the day. To indemnify them for this strictly kept up seclusion, the following remarkable arrangement has been made: At nine o'clock in the evening during the summer, and at an earlier hour during the winter, the city gates of Seoul and other towns are closed at a given signal. As soon as this has taken place, all men are bound to leave the treets, and these are abandoned to the women for the purpose of recreation and promenading. Any male finding himself by accident belated and behind the appointed time in the street is sure to hurry to his house as fast as possible, without looking up or regarding those about him; and severe punishment would fall upon any person daring, in the face of the stringent prohibition.

to molest women in the least. Good breeding demands from any man (and this is always done) to cover his face with a fan as soon as he sees a woman."

The dress of the Korean is so distinctive that there is no possibility of ever mistaking him, no matter how many other nationalities may be represented about him. His garments are white, his hat of black thread or horse-hair has a broad brim and a small round crown and is tied under his chin. Not only does his dress infallibly indicate his nationality but it plainly tells a number of interesting things about him. If the hat is white, he is betrothed. If a thin white cloth covers his nose and mouth, he is in mourning. If he wears his hair done up in a top-knot, he is married. This top-knot is one of the most curious customs in Korea. It is as characteristic as the queue in China and far more significant, for it originated, not as a badge of submission

KOREAN WOMAN IN STREET

to a conqueror, but as an expression of the people's most ancient and venerated beliefs.

"Many of the most revered, common, and firmly settled of the customs and superstitions of the people of Korea, are, as it were, woven, braided, coiled, and pinned into their top-knots, on which, like a hairy keystone, seem to hang, and round which are centered society, religion, and politics. When a boy becomes engaged, or is on the point of being married, a solemn ceremony is performed. In the presence of proper witnesses, and at the hands of proper functionaries (among whom

KOREAN BRIDE, PYENG YANG

are astrologers or soothsayers), the hair, which has hitherto been parted like a girl's and worn in a long braid down the back, is shaved from a small circular spot on the top of his head, and the remaining long locks combed smoothly upward and tied very tightly over the shaved place. They are then twisted and coiled into a small compact knot, between two and three inches high and about one in diameter. An amber, coral, silver, or even gold or jewelled pin is usually fastened through it. The 'Mangan,' a band of net bound with ribbon, is then fastened on round the head below the top-knot and above the ears, holding all stray hairs neatly in place (when a man obtains rank a small open horse-hair cap is placed over the top-knot), and over all the hat, which (being also of open-work, bamboo splints, silk or horse-hair) permits it to be seen. Fine new clothes are then donned, especially a long coat, and the boy has become a man! A feast is made, and he goes forth to call upon and be congratulated by his father's friends. Either on that day or the following he is married, although, as has been said, some boys have their hair put up when they become engaged.

"No matter how old one is, without a top-knot he is never considered a man, addressed with high endings, or treated with respect. After assuming the top-knot, no matter how young, he is invested with the dignities and

The Japanese in Korea

The conduct of the Japanese in Korea has been on the whole good. Mr. Angus Hamilton indeed abuses the Japanese without stint, declaring that they "committed social and administrative excesses of the most detestable character;" that "their extravagant arrogance blinds them to the absurdities and follies of their actions, making manifest the fact that their gloss of civilization is the merest veneer;" that "their conduct in Korea shows them to be destitute of moral and intellectual fibre;" that "they are debauched in business, and the prevalence of dishonorable practices in public life makes them indifferent to private virtue;" that they are sunk in "commercial and social degredation;" that "their sense of power is tempered neither by reason, justice, nor generosity;" that "their existence from day to day, their habits and their manners, their commercial and social degradation, complete an abominable travesty of the civilization which they profess to have studied;" that "the Japanese merchant is a rowdy," and the Japanese coolie "impudent, violent, and, in general, an outcast more prone to steal than to work."

But the Japanese may console themselves by reflecting that in being the objects of Mr. Hamilton's choler they are in good company, for he criticises almost everybody else in Korea. He loses no opportunity to sneer at everything American. He even reviles his own countrymen and nation, affirming that British merchants are characterized by "apathetic indifference;" that the British "no longer show the enterprise and initiative which formerly distinguished us;" that "we are no longer the pioneers of commerce, nor have we the capacity and courage of our forefathers." And he ridicules "the follies of the Imperial Government (British), the unreasoning prejudices and foolish blundering of the Foreign Office," "the drifting and vacuous policy of Lord Salisbury," and concludes his tirade by declaring that "it seems almost as if the British merchant were so bent upon his own damnation that little could be done," and that "unintelligible inaction characterizes British policy there as elsewhere."

As a matter of fact, the Japanese, while far from perfect, are a distinctly superior element in Korea. Their colony in Seoul, which numbered about 5,000 souls before the war and which has rapidly increased since, is the cleanest section of the city, and the same thing might be said of almost every Japanese colony in Korea. It is true that they do some exasperating things and that the Koreans and sometimes their foreign friends have occasion for indignant protest. But there never was a worse Augean stable to be cleaned out than they found in the land of the Morning Calm and the situation required decisive measures. Of course the corrupt official class more or less secretly hates the Japanese and hopes for the triumph of the Russians, for the Russians did not interfere seriously with the old order but were quite willing to let every vicious magistrate and court minister neglect and rob and abuse his people provided he recognized Russian supremacy. Russia in Korea means abundance of foreign gold, the continuance of profligacy, misgovernment, and filth, and in general the policy of *laissez faire*.

The Japanese on the other hand are reformers in Korea. They do not always do things after Western fashion. They are Oriental themselves and their moral standards are not ideal. But they insist on efficient government, on the enforcement of law and on the security of life and property. The magistrates, finding their corrupt practises interfered with and their ex-

Where there's nothing to charm and nothing to please,
And of cleanliness not an idea.
Where lucid description of persons and things
Quite baffles the readiest pen,
And stirs up strange qualms in the poet who sings
Of that far-away land of Chosen.

"Where the houses they live in are mostly of dirt,
With a tumble-down roof made of thatch;
Where soap is unknown, it is safe to assert,
And where vermin in myriads hatch;
Where the streets are all reeking with odors more rife
Than the smells from a hyena's den:
One visit is surely enough for one life,
In that far-away land of Chosen.

"Where the garments are made on a very queer plan,
And are something quite out of the common;
Where women wear pantaloons just like a man,
And men braid their hair like a woman.
The married man gathers his hair at the top
In a knot much resembling a wen,
The female coiffure is a huge ugly mop
In that far-away land of Chosen.

"Where the hats have a crown much too small for the head,
While the brim measures several feet round,
Where the principal fire is under the bed,
And the chimney a hole in the ground.
Where the coolies can't work without singing a song,
And must stop for a rest now and then,
While they snatch a few whiffs from a pipe three feet long,
In that far-away land of Chosen.

* * * * * *

"Where men-of-war fresh from some pleasanter clime
Look in for a few days or so,
Where the *Palos* alas! spends the most of her time
In the harbor about Chemulpo.
Where those who escape never care to return
To that 'Morning of Calm' country again,
Where there's nothing on earth that can cause one to yearn
For that far-away land of Chosen."

Mrs. H. G. Underwood, after a residence of fifteen years in Korea, wrote:

"Why Koreans do not have an epidemic of Asiatic cholera every summer raging through the whole country is one of the unsolved problems. All sewage runs into filthy narrow ditches, which are frequently stopped up with refuse, so as to overflow into the streets. Green, slimy pools of water lie undisturbed in courtyards and along the side of the road. Wells are polluted with drainage from soiled apparel washed close by. Quantities of decaying vegetable matter are thrown out and left to rot on the thoroughfares and under the windows of the houses. Every imaginable practise which comes under the definition of unhygienic or unsanitary is common. Even young children in arms eat raw and green cucumbers, unpeeled, acrid berries, and heavy, soggy, hot bread. They bolt quantities of hot or cold rice, with a tough, indigestible cabbage washed in ditch water, prepared with turnips and flavored with salt and red pepper. Green fruit of every kind is eaten with perfect recklessness of all the laws of nature, and with impunity (and I must say an average immunity from disastrous consequences) which makes a Westerner stand aghast. Any of us would surely die promptly and deservedly if we presumed to venture one-tenth of the impertinences and liberties with Dame Nature which a Korean smilingly and unconcernedly takes for granted as his common right. The only solution I have ever reached, and that I hold but weakly, is, that in accordance with the law of the survival of the fittest, none

A KOREAN CANDY MERCHANT

but exceptionally hardy specimens ever reach adolescence or even early childhood, and that having survived the awful tests of infancy, they are able to endure most trials which befall later. But even these, so to speak, galvanized-iron interiors are not always proof. It takes time, but every five or six years, by great care and industry a bacillus develops itself, so hardened, so well-armed, so deeply toxic, that even Koreans must succumb, and then there is an epidemic of cholera."*

*"Fifteen Years among the Top-Knots," pp. 133-134.

The Emperor and the Government

OVER all is the Emperor. Prior to October, 15, 1897, his title was "King" and he had been for centuries a tributary of China, though at times China's suzerainty was merely nomnal,. But in the year named, the independence of Korea was recognized as a result of the China-Japan War. The word "king" in Korea (Wang) may signify a tributary prince. "Emperor," however, (Hwang-ti) means the sovereign of an independent state. And so the ruler of Korea is now known as Emperor, though, as we shall see later, his imperial independence is hardly more than a name.

The government is patriarchal in type.

"The Emperor is father or head; the official class, the oldest sons; the remaining sons and daughters, *i. e.*, the common people, are the ones to be ruled. The Emperor rules by virtue of a right from heaven and he can never do wrong. There may be corruption in the several departments; there may be petty or heavy oppression of the people; there may be misgovernment everywhere, but these are one and all attributed to the officials who neglect or refuse to carry out the benevolent laws promulgated by their gracious master. I have heard of and read most scathing denunciations of rapacious and unscrupulous officials, but never an unkind word or even an implied censure of the conduct or rule of their sovereign. 'The King can never do wrong, and he who says the King has not done well is to be treated as an enemy.' This tenet is believed by patrician and plebian alike and governs political utterance and action in the empire today. The family, not the individual, is the unit in Korea. The father is responsible for the conduct of his family. A prodigal son, an over-ambitious office-seeker, may waste the resources of the family, but the father, the representative head, must make good the losses sustained."*

The present Emperor, Yi Heui, proudly boasts a venerable lineage which many a more powerful monarch might envy, for the Yi dynasty, to which he belongs, ascended the throne in 1392, a hundred years before Columbus discovered America. The Emperor is the thirtieth in direct line of succession from the founder of the dynasty. He is now fifty-four years of age, having been born in 1851, and he has ruled since 1864, so that he has already been on the throne forty-one years.

I was favored with an unexpected opportunity to see him. It came about through His Majesty's high regard for Protestant missionaries. He has never forgotten Dr. Allen's skilful treatment of his nephew and the courageous fidelity of Dr. Underwood and Dr. Avison during the stormy days and nights which followed the murder of the Queen. And so when the American minister, the Honorable Horace N. Allen, sent word to the palace that the "Father of the Missionaries," as he was pleased to describe me, had come to Seoul with his wife, His Majesty promptly sent back word that he would receive us at six o'clock on a certain evening. Unfortunately that was the evening of the day on which our steamer was to sail. As another was not scheduled to leave for several weeks, and as I had made definite engagements involving a large number of people in other places and was near the beginning of a journey of over a year which had been carefully planned, I felt that I could not disarrange my whole program even to meet an Emperor. So I was indiscreet enough to inform Minister Allen that while I highly appreciated the gracious invitation of His Majesty, and while I would count it a great honor to have the privilege of entering his august presence, to my profound regret it would be impossible as I had made all my plans to leave the afternoon of that day, etc., etc. But Minister Allen promptly replied in some consternation, "Look here, you are not in America but in Asia, and when an Asiatic potentate intimates that he will be pleased to receive a certain person at a certain hour, a certain person is to be received at a certain hour, and a little matter like losing a steamer and waiting an indefinite period for another one is not to be considered for a moment. The wish of an Emperor is law."

So there was a hurred consultation. I

*Rev. H. G. Appenzeller, D. D., "Sketch of Korea Mission."

cessions is easily understood. As M. Berard truly says:

"Russia compels in this way the future possession or the surveillance of all the lines necessary for the occupation of Great Armenia. She does not demand the immediate concession of the smallest piece of line. She is methodical in her enterprises."

While any one can see that the French buildings in Jerusalem are more imposing than any purely religious purpose necessitates, the Russian quarter is such a veritable fortress in size and strength, and the lofty Belvedere Tower which crowns the Mount of Olives is so unmistakably adapted to military signaling for nearly all that part of Palestine, that no one doubts that Russia is preparing for a day when she expects, to use Napoleon's phrase, that "Providence will be on the side of the heaviest battalions."

Another route by which Russia hopes to reach the sea is through Persia. That weak and decadent people is rapidly falling into the hands of the Russians. The priests of the Orthodox Greek Church have been for years quietly working among the members of the old Nestorian Church whose lot has been an unhappy one under the rule of the arrogant Moslem. To these oppressed people the Russians offered shelter and protection if they would enroll themselves in the Holy Church. Persecuted and poverty-stricken, it is not surprising that the Nestorians responded to the invitation and that today practically the whole of that ancient sect, except that part of it which had become Protestant under the influence of American and English missionaries, has been received into the Russian Church. Under the pretext of caring for the multitudes who have thus come under her protection, Russia is silently but powerfully strengthening her influence in Persia. Probably the weak Shah would have yielded his all ere this if it had not been for the vigilance of other European powers. The British Minister succeeded in inducing the Shah to promise that no concessions should be given to foreigners to build railways in Persia, but while the English were congratulating themselves that their minister had thus check-mated the Russians, the wily Slav obtained from the Shah a concession to construct a carriage road from the Russian frontier to Teheran. This appeared innocent enough. But lo, when the carriage road was completed, it proved to be so carefully constructed that it was virtually the graded bed of a railway, and doubtless investigation, if it were permitted, would disclose the rails and ties waiting at some convenient place beyond the border. In order not to be caught napping, Lord Lansdowne, the British Minister of Foreign Affairs, has publicly declared that Great Britain could not permit any other European power to intrench itself on the Persian Gulf, the British holding that this policy is imperatively demanded by their interests in India.

But while Russia has not abandoned her purpose in any of these directions, she has of late years expended her chief energies on the more colossal effort in the farther East. Russian statesmen long ago saw that the Pacific Ocean was to be the arena of world events of stupendous significance to the race.

As I have said elsewhere,* her territory in Siberia already touched the North Pacific and partly that she might develop this vast region but primarily that she might have a highway through it to the great ocean which lies beyond, Russia in 1891 began the construction of the Trans-Siberian Railway. The most southern point of Russia on the Pacific Ocean at that time was Vladivostok, which had been founded in 1860. This was therefore made the terminus of the line and rapidly and strongly fortified. But Russia was

*"New Forces in Old China," p. 179.

not content with a harbor which is closed by ice six months in the year. Moreover Vladivostok is not upon the open Pacific but upon the Japan Sea, and from this Sea there are practically only two outlets — Tsugaru Strait, 424 miles eastward, and Korea Strait, 600 miles southward. But the former is a narrow passage between the two largest islands of Japan, Hondo and Yesso, while the latter, though 120 miles wide, is bordered on one side by Japan and has the Japanese island of Tsushima in the middle of it. In other words, the Japan Sea is for all naval purposes Japan's Sea and it would be difficult for a fleet of any other nation to get in or out of it without her consent.

Naturally, therefore, Russia began to press her way southward through Manchuria, that great province of China whose southern end is washed by the Yellow Sea. China's resistance was no match for Russian diplomacy and rapid progress was being made when the China-Japan War broke out in 1894. The Japanese made short work of the Chinese and in November, after a short and brilliant campaign, they captured Port Arthur. April 17, 1895, the treaty of peace was signed at Shimonoseki. This treaty stipulated among other things that Korea should be absolutely independent but that the Liao-tung Peninsula, as well as Formosa and the Pescadores, should be ceded to Japan and an indemnity of 200,000,000 taels paid.* Ostensibly in the interest of the integrity of China, but really in the interests of her own ambition, Russia persuaded France and Germany to join her in notifying the Japanese Government, April 23, that "it would not be permitted to retain permanent possession of any portion of the mainland of Asia." The solicitude of Russia for the integrity of helpless China was quite touching, but it did not prevent Russia from making one encroachment after another upon the coveted territory until March 8, 1898, she peremptorily demanded for herself, and March 27 of the same year obtained Port Arthur, including Talienwan and 800 square miles of adjoining territory.

Grim significance was given to Russia's action by the prompt appearance at Port Arthur of 20,000 Russian soldiers and 90,000 coolies who were set to work developing a great modern fortification and how well they builded all the world now knows.

As it was expedient however, to have a commercial city on the peninsula as well as a fortification, as the harbor of Port Arthur was not large enough for both naval and commercial purposes, and as the Russians did not wish anyway to make their fortifications accessible to the rest of the world, they decided to build a city forty-five miles north of Port Arthur and to call it Dalny, which quite appropriately means "far away." Most cities grow, but this was too slow a method for the purpose of the Tzar, and therefore, a metropolis was made to order as a result of an edict issued by the Tzar, July 30, 1899.

The harbor at Dalny is an exceptionally fine one with over thirty feet of water at low tide so that the largest vessels can lie along the docks and transfer their cargoes directly to trains for Europe. The boom cities of the American West must yield the palm to this boom city of Northern Asia. In 1899, there was practically nothing at Dalny but a wretched Chinese village. But by 1903, great piers had been constructed; enormous ware-houses and elevators erected; gas, electric light, water and street-car plants installed; wide and well-sewered streets laid out; and a thoroughly modern and handsome city planned in four sections, the

*Asakawa, "The Russo-Japanese Conflict," p. 74 sq.

first of which was to be administrative, the second mercantile, the third residence and the fourth Chinese. The Russians spared neither labor nor expense in the construction of this ambitious city, which in 1904 already had a population of over 50,000 and represented a cash expenditure of $150,000,000.

Doubtless the Tzar was sincere in his desire to make Dalny a free port, but the history of Russia's dealings with outsiders makes it not uncharitable to suspect that the port would have been really free only in so far as the interests of the Siberian Railway might require and that the line of freedom would have been so closely drawn at the city limits that the vaunted liberty would not be worth much to any but Russian subjects. Russian policy in Asia is not philanthropic.

As for the alleged benefit to the Chinese from Russian occupation, M. Gerrare says:

"It is true that some thousands of coolies from Chefoo have found occasional remunerative employment in constructing the railways, building forts, barracks, and houses; but these are not resident, are no part of the population of Manchuria, and the purchasing power of the people has not been greatly increased by the money Russia has expended there. Manchuria has the railway, but enormous tracts of fertile land have been thrown out of cultivation; thriving towns and villages too numerous to count have disappeared entirely; the junks are off the rivers, trade is at a standstill, industry is dead, the robber bands have increased in number and infest the countryside so that travel into the wilder parts is no safer than it was previous to the imposition of the Russian regime."**

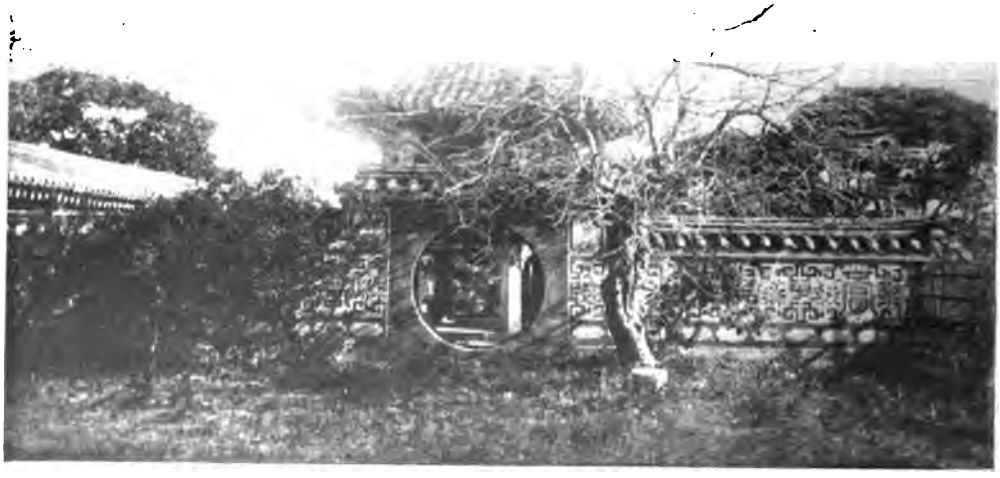
The Russians soon found however, that when the wind was from the south-east the harbor of Dalny was not a safe anchorage. So at vast expense they constructed a break-water. When it was completed the water within was quiet indeed, but lo, in cold weather it froze, so that the Russians to their intense exasperation found themselves thwarted again in their desire to have an ice free port at all seasons of the year. Where else could they find one? Manifestly they could not find it on the China side, for the next harbor in that direction is Newchwang which is also ice-bound in winter. Beyond that is the Imperial Province of Chih-li, which of course China could not yield, nor is there any good harbor on that side until Chefoo is reached, and Chefoo is in the Province of Shantung which Germany had already preempted. There was but one place to which the Russians could turn and that was south-eastward to Korea, which possessed several excellent ice-free harbors, and which was plainly too weak to maintain its independence. Moreover, Russia felt that Korea was necessary not only for this purpose but for free communication both by land and sea between the two fortified ports of Vladivostok and Port Arthur, for the peninsula forms a great wedge between those two cities. It was evident that a hostile power in Korea could easily cross the border and break the railway lines in Manchuria, and that it could also prevent the passage of Russian war vessels through the Korea Strait. The Russians therefore felt that Korea was indispensable, not only to their naval and commercial purposes in the North Pacific, but to the protection of their interests in Manchuria.

Russia always prefers to gain her ends by peace rather than by war and so she promptly began to strengthen her interests in Korea by diplomatic means. April 25, 1898, as a salve to the wounded feelings of the Japanese and in order to leave herself free to consolidate her power in Manchuria, she had entered into an agreement with Japan by which both powers promised to respect the integrity of Korea and not to maintain there more than 800 soldiers. This agreement now pre-

*"New Forces in Old China," p. 180.

**New York *Journal of Commerce*, July, 8, 1903.

DINING HALL OF THE PALACE IN SEOUL



ROUND GATE, PALACE GROUNDS, SEOUL

SUMMER PALACE IN THE MOUNTAINS NEAR SEOUL

PAVILION ON ISLAND, WEST PALACE, SEOUL

that small fraction which at that time was left to poor Korea).*

But after four months of this humiliating bondage, the unhappy King suddenly succeeded in effecting a startling coup d'etat.

"Wearied and sick at heart of affairs of state, his Majesty retired to the women's apartments, where he spent his entire time, escaping thus to some extent the detestable espionage of his enemies, who delegated two elderly women, one the wife of the Tai Won Kun, and another, whose duty it was to watch his majesty in turn, one by day, the other by night. Their vigilance was, however, in some way sufficiently eluded so that a plan for the royal prisoner's escape was arranged with two of the palace women, which was successfully carried out as follows:

"On a certain birthday festival, both of the duennas who, as was said, took turns, watching and sleeping, were invited to celebrate with the king, and to partake of a great feast, with plenty of wine and prolonged amusements. All night the king's watchers revelled, both falling into a heavy sleep before dawn. This is the story, but I like to think that as one of the women was probably the king's mother, her heart was tender towards her unhappy son, and that she purposely relaxed her watch. It would gild a little the long dark tale of all that preceded to find a touch of sweet human affection right here. At any rate, when every one in the palace was off guard, supposing the King and Crown Prince asleep, they entered a couple of women's chairs which were waiting. The bearers of these chairs had been specially selected and paid with a view to their carrying two, and thought nothing of it, as the palace women often went out to their homes in this way. So in each chair a woman sat in front of its royal occupant, screening him from view should any one glance in. The sentinels at the gate had been provided with hot refreshments and plenty of strong drink, and were so fully occupied that the chairs with their valuable burden passed out unnoticed and unhindered. They were expected at the Russian Legation, where 160 marines from the port had just been called up, and there they speedily made their way, arriving at about seven or eight in the morning of February, 11, 1896.

"This meant the downfall of the usurpers. With the King's person went all their claim to authority and power, and it also meant that Japanese influence in Korean affairs was over for a time, and that the country had been almost thrown into the arms of Russia, by the short-sighted policy of the minister who had desired to establish the prestige of Japan."**

The King remained at the Russian Legation for a year. Of course the Russian Minister gave him a hearty welcome and of course also he was not slow to avail himself of the opportunity which was thus afforded him. There was indeed a great pretense of delicacy and disinterestedness. Indeed it should be said that men of other nationalities in Seoul quite generally gave the Russian Minister credit for modesty and forbearance and even criticized him for not taking fuller advantage of his opportunity. However events soon showed that Russia was not losing much. The grateful monarch was easily persuaded to agree to a convention, which was signed in Moscow, June 9, 1896, recognizing and organizing Russian interests in Korea. This was followed April 28, 1896, and therefore while the King was still at the Russian Legation, by a concession giving a Russian company the monopoly for twenty years of the lumber region in the Mu-san district on the Tumen River and on the Island of Uinung in the Japan Sea. The concession provided that the King should receive a royalty of twenty-five per cent. of the annual profit and that at any time within five years after the work had been begun the company might cut lumber in the valley of the Yalu. January 1, 1901, this time limit was extended to twenty years.

After the Emperor returned to his own Palace, or rather to a new one which he built, for a Korean ruler will not live in a palace where the death of his predecessor or consort has occurred, valuable concessions followed rapidly. The Emperor is a chronic bankrupt and no serious difficulty was encountered in inducing him to exchange privileges which meant nothing to him for Russian gold. A concession was soon obtained for mining coal in Hangyondo, and, April 20, 1900, for whale fishing off the southern coast. With the utmost suavity the Russians represented the need of some place on shore where the oil could be tried out.

*Mrs. Underwood, p. 156.

**Underwood, p. 174-175.

the one I have described, and it is the tactful custom of His Majesty to address some question to each person presented to him, however humble he may be.

The real government of Korea, however, is in the hands of the cabinet. Of course the Emperor is the absolute lord and theoretically he alone rules. Everything is done in his name and presumably on his order. But His Majesty is not disposed to lead a strenuous life and ambitious ministers easily acquire large power. The government is divided into ten departments. These are the cabinet over which the premier presides: the home office, the foreign office, the treasury, the war office, the department of education, the department of justice, the department of agricultural trade and industry, the household department, and the police department. The ministers of these various departments have each a seat in the cabinet. This cabinet has considerable influence in framing laws and particularly in selecting governors, magistrates and other officials. The chief characteristic of the whole government is weakness. It is totally destitute of the moral fiber which Korea so urgently needs, and the prevailing corruption is as great among the officials in the Imperial Palace as anywhere in the Empire.

From the viewpoint of defense against foreign aggressions Korea is utterly helpless. The army is a wonderful affair. Until recently there were only about 5,000 men, but the number has now been increased to 17,000. The system is ostensibly European, but it is doubtful whether any European army officer would be willing to assume responsibility for the Korean army. In 1896 a Russian colonel, assisted by three commissioned officers and ten non-commissioned officers, undertook to bring some order out of the chaos. He organized a royal body-guard of about 1,000 men and armed them with Berdan rifles. But the Russian officers were displaced in April, 1898. Still the Guard is the only part of the Korean army that approaches any kind of effectiveness. It is fairly well trained for Korea. But taking the army as a whole, it is about the worst equipped, worst disciplined body of soldiers imaginable. The soldiers slouch about in most unmilitary fashion. Their valor was tested by Mr. J. McLeavy Brown, the Commissioner of Maritime Customs and a British subject. He is a man of great force of character, an able administrator, and of incorruptible integrity. Finding him an obstacle to their progress, the Russians and French succeeded in persuading the Emperor to depose him. But Mr. Brown refused to be deposed. A detachment of Korean troops was sent to eject him. Whereupon the redoubtable Scotch-Irishman, with a vigorous use of a light cane and a heavy boot, put the whole detachment to ignominious flight in spite of its loaded rifles and fixed bayonets.

The navy—but it is hardly proper to apply the word navy to a variegated assortment of twenty-eight admirals, a few sailors and no war vessels at all.

Religion

THE traveler who comes to Korea from either Japan or China will be struck with the absence of those outward manifestations of religious observance which are so numerous in other lands.

"Indeed the visitor at first fails to see any visible signs of religious life among the people. Naturally and properly he looks for this manifestation in Seoul. But there is nothing in the capital that looks like a temple; aside from the temple to the god of war outside the south gate, there is little or nothing to attract the attention of the casual observer. He is apt to jump to the conclusion, as has been done, that here is a people without a religion, a conclusion both hasty and unwarranted."*

A closer study will show anyone that while there is no outwardly established religion with its temples and prescribed observances, there are nevertheless religious customs which have great power over the lives of the people. Indeed Korea may be said to have three religions.

Buddhism has only a nominal hold upon the people. It is true that it is an ancient faith, having entered Korea from China as far back as 371 A. D. At one time Buddhism attained great influence. Temples and monasteries were large and numerous and priests occupied high civil and military offices. But like the Jesuits in some European countries, their fondness for political intrigue resulted in their overthrow. They made themselves so much disliked and feared in connection with the preceding dynasty, and were so generally held responsible for its downfall that they lost practically all their power and for more than five hundred years Buddhist priests were forbidden to enter the capital. Not till a short time ago was this prohibition repealed. The priests can often be seen outside the walls, but they appear to have but a small following and they look dejected and dirty. It is easy to identify them by their shaven heads, bee-hive shaped hats, grass-cloth coat, rosary and staff.

Confucianism is also a religion in Korea, though as in China, it is really not a religion at all in a strict sense of the term. Still, ancestral worship, which is the main feature of Confucianism, prevails very generally in Korea, and it may, therefore, be classed among the religions of the country. A well-to-do Korean usually has a small separate building in the rear of his house where he keeps his ancestral tablets. "This house is visited on the anniversary of the death of the father or mother and during the twenty-seven months, the period of mourning, wailings and prostrations and sacrifices are here observed on the first and fifteenth of each month."*

Shamanism, however, is really the dominant faith, or to speak more accurately, the dominant superstition. It peoples the air and the earth and the water with innumerable evil spirits and it leads the terrified people to adopt all sorts of expedients in order to propitiate or to outwit the angry demons. Somewhere by almost every house may be found a small stake driven into the ground, the exposed part being wrapped with straw and topped with a bit of white paper, on which some words of alleged mystical power have been inscribed. The object of this stake is to propitiate the god of the site, and sacrifices and protestations are often made to keep him in good humor.

Many a time as I traveled through the interior, I saw by the wayside a tree about whose trunk were piles of stones and from whose branches were fluttering bits of colored rags. I learned on inquiry that the poor people imagined that an evil spirit inhabited the tree. The spirit was, however, believed to be curious as well as malignant, and so to divert his attention, the traveler would toss a stone about the base of the tree or tear a strip from his garment and fasten it to a limb, and while the curious demon was

*Rev. Dr. H. G. Appenzeller, "Sketch of the Korea Mission."

*Dr. Appenzeller.

valley of the Yalu and it might be made a point of junction between the Trans-Siberian Railway and the Seoul-Wi-ju line. So in May (1903), Russian soldiers in civilian dress quietly entered Yong-am-po together with a large number of Korean and Chinese coolies and began to construct what they blandly described as "timber ware-houses." There was indeed a large ware-house, but it did not contain timber, and there were also fifteen massive brick buildings, a large blacksmithing plant, and a score of other buildings of varying sizes, none of which appeared to be for timber. A railway track connected the sea wharf and the wharf-house. Of course it would never do to leave such "timber" interests unprotected, and so the original number of Russian soldiers increased from 47 to 60, then to 100 and then to 200, while at An-tung and other places on the Chinese side of the Yalu considerable bodies of Russian troops were assembled,* the meaning of which was unmistakable.

From all this it will be seen how persistently Russia pursued her policy to entrench herself upon an unfrozen sea, and why the Russians felt that they could not yield without sacrificing interests which were essential to their purpose. And Russia never changes her mind, never abandons her policy. She moves to her goal as steadily as a glacier — huge, cold, silent, slow, but almost irresistible. British, German, French, and American policies come and go, but Russia's like Tennyson's brook "goes on forever." For a long period the rest of the world paid little attention to the Muscovite Empire, but all the time she was quietly encroaching on other countries, "adding other empires to her already enormous domains until without a shot fired, and by a simple stroke of the pen the mouth of one of the greatest rivers of Asia was indisputably hers and its left bank for one thousand miles with much more in immediate or distant prospect." There is a fascination almost terrible in this stealthy, never-resting, all-embracing movement upon weaker nations. Years before, even the gentle Whittier was moved to cry out of Russia:

> "Fell Spider of the North.
> Stretching thy great feelers forth,
> Within whose web the freedom dies
> Of nations eaten up as flies."

Against such a foe Korea was utterly helpless. But the purposes of the Slav were being watched by a vigilant foe and suddenly that foe stood boldly across the pathway of Russia with the stern command 'Hands off!' July 28, 1903, Baron Komura, the Japanese Minister for Foreign Affairs, cabled to Mr. Kurino, the Japanese Minister at St. Petersburg:

> "The Imperial Government (of Japan) have observed with close attention the development of affairs in Manchuria, and its present situation causes them to view it with grave concern. The Imperial Government, after the most serious consideration, have resolved to consult the Russian Government, in a spirit of conciliation and frankness, with a view to the conclusion of an understanding designed to compose questions which are at this time the cause of their anxiety."*

*Asakawa, p. 289 sq.

*Asakawa, p. 297-298.

Seoul

SEOUL, the capital, is the largest city in the country. The word "Seoul" literally means "capital," so that if the Emperor were to make his residence anywhere else that place would immediately become "Seoul." I vainly tried to ascertain the correct pronunciation, but I found a wide difference of opinion among foreigners who have resided long in the country. Some pronounce it "Sole," but those who had the highest reputation as linguists told me that the best pronunciation was "Sa-oul," pronouncing the two syllables, however, as close together as possible.

The city lies upon the bank of the Han River, twenty-six miles from the coast, and has a population of approximately 219,815 (of whom 75,189 live outside the walls). Its history dates back to the year 1395, when it was founded by the first ruler of the present dynasty. Songdo was the capital of the former dynasty, but the new ruler wanted to establish a capital of his own and so he chose the bank of the Han. The site is naturally a fine one. The city occupies a valley, about five miles in length by three in breadth and surrounded by noble mountains. In the clear atmosphere they tower close at hand and they are not really far off. They are not snow-covered, save in the winter, and are usually bare of trees, and in many places of grass as well, for the people use every bit of grass and even the roots for fuel. But with their serrated peaks outlined against the sky they make a superb natural rampart. Along the river banks above and beyond the city are many attractive nooks of a quieter character. The city is surrounded by a wall about six miles in circumference and forty-two feet high. It is said that 198,000 men toiled nine months in building this wall, which is constructed of massive blocks of stone. Eight ponderous gates give access to the city, each surmounted by massive roofs of a distinctly Korean type. In order to get the best view, one should go to the top of one of the hills near the city, or better still he should climb one of the mountains, either Ponkhan on the north or Namsan on the south. From either of these the views are impressive. The city at one's feet with its low thatched roofed houses appears indeed "like a vast bed of mushrooms." But here and there notable buildings rise. Most prominent among these are the Roman Catholic Cathedral and the various European and American Legations, some of the former being particularly massive. The grounds of the Imperial Palace occupy a large space and the foliage of their trees appears green and beautiful in a city where, apart from them, there are practically no shade trees. The main streets, of course, lead from the gates. They are fifty-six feet in width. Such streets are, however, few in number, most of the so-called streets being mere alleys.

The city as a whole is squalid almost beyond description. Recently indeed there has been some improvement. But how Angus Hamilton could describe Seoul as "clean," passes comprehension. With the possible exception of Chefoo, it was the filthiest city I saw anywhere in Asia. Garbage and offal are thrown on to the ground and left to rot under the hot sun. Alongside of the principal streets, there are open sewers or ditches. Save in the rainy season, there is not water enough to flush them, and they become choked with filth until it breeds every kind of zymotic disease. Beside the average house is a tiny open trench into which all slops are cast. But the trench ends a few feet from the house and the filth seeps into the soil, often near the wells from which the drinking water is drawn. All over Seoul one sees stagnant filth between the houses and in the streets and the open sewers. In the hot, wet months of July and August, the whole city becomes a steaming cesspool, and the foreigner who remains in it is pretty apt to be stricken with dysentery. But during that season most of the foreigners live in bungalows which they have built upon the banks of the river

about four miles outside the city, while those who can go farther, seek the seashore or the mountains. It is not surprising, in such circumstances, that dysentery, cholera, typhus and typhoid fevers and kindred diseases rage at frequent intervals. Of late years some effort has been made to abate the worst abuses, but there is still room for great improvement.

On some of the more prominent streets, the scene is often picturesque. Electric trolley cars are running, the system being operated by Americans. The cars are not numerous and they are far from clean. This, however, cannot be easily remedied for they are often crowded with dirty Koreans.

"Pack ponies, officials in sedan chairs, departmental clerks in jinrikishas, common people on foot, foreigners on bicycles, coolies with heavy burdens on their jickies, women with bundles of clothing on their heads, small boys going to or returning from school or on errands for parents or employers, fill the streets all day long."*

As the dress of the Koreans is white, the effect is often striking.

Of course Seoul, being both the capital and the metropolis of the country, presents some aspects of Korean life that are not so easily seen in other places. Instead of being more easy to approach, the people of the capital are apt to be less easy, as the official class and those dependent upon them are more numerous. While there are said to be 3,800 officials in the whole Empire, Seoul is popularly called "the city of 3,000 officials," because that large number is supposed to reside there.

The objects of special interest in Seoul are not numerous when one considers its size and rank. Notable buildings are few and the great temples that one sees in Japan and China are conspicuous by their absence. The traveler will, however, be interested in the Royal Palace, the Coronation Altar, the Japanese quarter, and the great bronze bell which is considered the third largest in the world. For five hundred years this bell signalled the opening and closing of the city gates with a quaint ceremony that has now been abandoned. An inscription on the bell reads:

"Sye Cho the Great, 12th year Man cha [year of the cycle] and moon, the 4th year of the great Ming Emperor Hsuan-hua [A. D. 1468], the head of the bureau of Royal despatches, Sye Ko Chyeng, bearing the title Sa Ka Chyeng, had this pavilion erected and this bell hung."

The Korean is not musical, but this bell is certainly a noble one. At the Palace, many small brass bells are suspended from the eaves of several of the buildings. A fish of the same metal is fastened to the clapper by a chain, and when the wind blows these fishes back and forth, the bells are rung. The effect at sunrise or sunset when a gentle breeze is blowing is singularly sweet.

The traveler will wish to see the legations, and he should call first of all upon the American minister, whom he will find to be an able and intelligent representative of our country, thoroughly versed in the diplomacy of the Far East, and with a grace of manner that will make the visit a pleasant remembrance. Unfortunately the parsimony of Congress does not enable him to live on the scale which is maintained by the ministers of several of the European courts, so that the American legation will not appear to him impressive as compared with the stately buildings of the Russian, British, and French legations. But the sight of the American flag in that strange land will atone for much.

It is to be hoped that the traveler will have better success in getting there than we did. Carefully instructed by our missionary friends, our jinrikisha coolies trotted off with great confidence and after a long trip deposited us at the French Legation. I tried in vain to make them understand where I wanted to go and then hunted up the legation interpreter who reasoned with them for me. They smiled and nodded and again started off Presently a rather imposing building appeared, but it proved to be the Russian legation instead of the American. I made

*"Sketch of the Korea Mission," by the Rev. Dr. H. G. Appenzeller.

a few remarks appropriate to the occasion, which were quite lost upon the imperturbable coolies, who sat down and began to puff cigarettes as calmly as if everything were going smoothly. After prowling around a while, I found a Russian who could speak English and explained to him my plight. He very kindly called up a Korean interpreter who went with me to the coolies and in language of picturesque

CORONATION ALTAR, SEOUL
It was at this place that the Emperor was crowned.

energy told them of their blunder and directed them where to go. They gave grunts of acquiescence and we started once more. Rain began to fall, but we solaced ourselves with the thought that we should soon arrive. We did, but it was at the West Gate of the city, with no legation of any kind in sight. More hunting up of an interpreter, more explanations which I fear verged upon objurgations, more grunts of acquiescence and then, nothing abashed, the patient coolies turned around and hauled us off in a different direction. Finally they deposited us with smiles of gratified pride at the German consulate! We were getting an opportunity to see a good deal of Seoul but as the rain was now pouring steadily and as we thought of the luncheon that we were missing and the annoyance which we were causing our hostess, we were not in a happy frame of mind. So once more we started upon our perambulations. As we were racing past a doorway, I happened to get a fleeting glance into the interior and saw an American flag. I hastily stopped the coolies and turning in we found ourselves in the long desired place. Minister Allen and his wife were most kind in their welcome and they were polite enough to appear far more concerned for the embarrassment and trouble which we had, than for the delay to which we had subjected them.

Wide spaces outside the wall are covered with countless graves. Indeed "the graves within an area of ten miles from the city wall are among the remarkable features of this singular capital. The dead have a monopoly of the fine hill slopes and southern aspects. A man who when alive is content with a mud hovel in a dingy alley, when dead must repose on a breezy hill slope with dignified and carefully tended surroundings. The little fine timber which exists in the denuded neighborhood of Seoul is owed to the royal and wealthy dead. The amount of good land occupied by the dead is incredible. The grave of a member of the Royal family on a hill creates a solitude for a considerable distance around. In the case of rich and great men as well as of princes, the grave is a lofty grassy mound, often encircled by a massive stone railing, with the hill terraced in front and excavated in a horseshoe shape behind. A stone altar and stone lanterns are placed in front, and the foot of the hill, as at the 'Princess's Tomb,' is often occupied by a temple-like building, containing tablets with the

SEDAN CHAIR OF AN OFFICIAL WITH BEARERS AND RUNNERS

name and rank of the dead. The Royal tombs are approached by stately avenues of gigantic stone figures, possibly a harmless survival of the practice of offering human and other sacrifices at a burial. These figures represent a priest, a warrior in armor, a servant, a pony, and a sheep(?). The poorer dead occupy hillsides in numbers, resting under grass mounds on small platforms of grass neatly kept. The lucky place for interment is in all cases chosen by the geomancer. Behind rich men's

graves pines are usually planted in a crescent. The dead population of the hillsides round Seoul is simply enormous."*

Outside the wall there is a Home for Destitute Children which is maintained by a local board of directors, chiefly foreigners. The property was secured by the Rev. Dr. H. G. Underwood of the Presbyterian Mission and the resident matron is Miss Perry, formerly a missionary of the Australian Presbyterian Church. The site is beautiful and the buildings, for Korea, are fairly comfortable. Here the visitor will find an interesting company of Korean children who are being taught habits of cleanliness and thrift and virtue.

Beyond the West Gate, there is a large building called Independence Hall in which large public meetings are held. The Sunday I visited it, there was a union meeting of the Presbyterians of Seoul at two o'clock and not less than 1,000 people were present.

TEMPLE WHERE THE EMPEROR WORSHIPS

Of the mission work in Seoul, the Presbyterian is the largest. The station force includes some men of wide reputation and great influence. Two of them, the Rev. Dr. James S. Gale and Mrs. Horace S. Underwood, are authors whose books are indispensable to an understanding of Korea, and others are famous as preachers, administrators and physicians. The Presbyterian institutional work embraces the John D. Wells Training School for Christian Workers, founded by the family and friends of the late Rev. Dr. Wells of Brooklyn, New York; a boarding school for girls built by Mr. John H. Converse of Philadelphia and the Severance Hospital, erected by Mr. Lewis H. Severance of Cleveland, Ohio. The Hospital is the largest and the best equipped institution of the kind in Korea. It has from the beginning enjoyed the special favor of the Emperor and its influence is great. The Presbyterian churches are three in number, though the traveler might pass them without knowing that they are churches, for the buildings are simply native houses that have been adapted to church use by removing partitions and in some instances by making a few additions.

The Presbyterian Board has now, through the generosity of Mr. John H. Converse of Philadelphia, secured a site for a Central Church and it is proposed to erect upon it a suitable edifice with the varied appointments for what at home would be called an institutional church. The three present church buildings, however, will be retained for local work in their respective districts. All Korean congregations sit on the floor, the men with their hats on, and the sexes divided by a partition, the preacher standing so that he can see both sexes. The attendance is often very large. The day I visited the Sai-mun-an Church about 350 people were packed like sardines into that little building and crowded about the doors and the open windows. When the minister wishes to make more room he calls upon the congregation to rise; then he asks the people to move forward and then to sit down again.

The American Methodists also have a large work in Seoul. The Woman's Hos-

*Mrs. Bishop, pp. 61-62.

THE AMERICAN LEGATION AT SEOUL

withdrew her legation from St. Petersburg and began a war which is destined to be epochal in the annals of mankind.

One of the first phases of the war was naturally the Japanese occupation of Korea. Some of the weak and corrupt Koreans resisted more or less bitterly and petitions were presented to the Throne to "expel" the foreign conqueror. But the pro-Russian party among the Koreans found scant consideration and the work of reorganizing Korea on Japanese lines immediately ely began. The Japanese Minister to Korea summed up the Korean situation and the plans of Japan as follows:

"Heretofore there has been no definition of imperial and ministerial functions. There must be a government, and palace intrigues must end. The useless army of Korea must be reduced, a living wage must be paid to the officials, and 'squeezing' must be stopped. When complaints are entertained and acted upon extortion will cease.

"There must be education of the proper sort. The majority of the Koreans who speak foreign languages are absolutely without administrative ability, and stand for little save speculation.

"Japan is confonted by a most difficult problem—to maintain the fiction of Korean independence while practically establishing a protectorate, and yet to avoid assuming the responsibilities of a governing power."*

August 19, 1904, articles one and two, and August 22, article three of the following "Agreement" between Japan and Korea were concluded at Seoul:

Article I

"The Korean Government shall engage a Japanese subject recommended by the Japanese Government as Financial Adviser to the Korean Government, and all matters concerning finance shall be dealt with after his counsel shall have been taken.

Article II

"The Korean Government shall engage a foreigner recommended by the Japanese Government as Diplomatic Adviser to the Foreign Office, and all important matters concerning foreign relations shall be dealt with after his counsel shall have been taken.

Article III

"The Korean Government shall consult the Japanese Government before concluding treaties and conventions with Foreign Powers, and also in dealing with other important diplomatic affairs such as grants of concessions to, or contracts with foreigners."

It will be seen that this virtually gives Japan a protectorate over Korea. That the result will be enormously to the advantage of Korea as well as Japan is unquestionable.

While Japan undoubtedly hopes by her alliance with England to strengthen herself against the Western world and to prevent further aggressions by European powers, it does not necessarily follow that she would make war upon all Europe if she dared. Japan is astute enough to see that it is to her interests to maintain friendly re-

**Missionary Review of the World*, Sept., '04.

*Asakawa, p. 297-298.

and Foreign Bible Society. He and his assistant, Mr. A. S. Sites, are the only Bible Society agents in Korea. Their work represents not only their own society, but the American Bible Society and the National Bible Society of Scotland. The three societies unite in the support of the work, the National Bible Society paying one-fifth the cost of translations and the other societies two-fifths each.

The Roman Catholic Cathedral occupies a commanding site on high ground and is the most conspicuous building in the city. It is an eyesore to the Emperor and his loyal subjects for it is deemed discourteous, a kind of *lèse-majesté*, for anyone to erect a building which can look down on the Imperial Palace. The Koreans made strenuous objection to this site for the Cathedral, as the eminence on which it stands commands not only the Palace but practically the whole city. But the Roman Catholics, with the powerful backing of the French legation, persisted and refused to yield.

The Roman Catholic Bishop impressed me as a very intelligent man with a fine, expressive face. The Protestant missionaries frankly say that he has an unsurpassed knowledge of the Korean language and literature. But the priests that I saw were, with some pleasant exceptions, evidently from the peasant class, faithful, industrious and blindly devoted to their church, but not men of any special education or refinement. The bishop told me that the Roman Catholic population in Korea was 42,441, that there were thirty-nine foreign missionaries, and that the number of confirmations that year had been 2,130.

The statement is sometimes made that the Roman Catholic priests receive no salaries, the object being to exalt them as compared with the Protestant missionaries. The comparison, however, is unfair. The priests are celibates and a prominent priest told me that candidates for the foreign priesthood are not accepted if they have dependent relatives. Moreover while there are notable exceptions, it is plain there is no comparison between the two classes. The French Roman Catholic priests come from a different social stratum. Accustomed from their earliest years to a lower scale of living and with no families dependent upon them, it is manifest that they can live in communities and on a much smaller sum than the Protestant missionary, who is a more highly educated man and who has a wife and children.

So far as appearances go, the Roman Catholic priests do not appear to suffer. They own the most magnificent and expensive mission property in Korea. I was informed that each priest has an annual allowance of one hundred bottles of wine and that each unordained "brother" has an allowance of sixty bottles. The priests are furnished free room and eat at a common table and their appearance does not suggest that it is a poor one. It is plain that the statement that the priest has no salary is misleading, for he is fairly well provided for and having no one dependent upon him he is about as comfortable as his Protestant brother. There is much ground for believing that while the individual priest may have little or nothing, the order to whch he belongs has ample funds, and that many priests receive gifts, while there is also a large income from the rites of burials, baptisms, marriages, masses for the dead, and like services.

A Tour of the Interior

THE most characteristic scenes in Korea are, quite naturally, not in the capital, but in the country, and in order that we might see them we left Seoul after a delightful and profitable week for an overland tour to Pyeng Yang. By application through the American Minister, one can obtain a traveling passport called the kwan-ja. It calls on all magistrates to whom it may be presented en route to furnish whatever the traveler may require in the way of food, lodging, money, animals, carriers, etc. But while it is well to secure this passport so as to be prepared for any emergency that may arise, it is better not to use it unless absolutely necessary. The magistrates as a rule do not take kindly to these passports, as some travelers have abused their privileges under them and have made peremptory demands, and when the magistrate has found it inconvenient or impracticable to supply what was wanted, the traveler has become insolent and threatening. A Korean magistrate, even though he be weak and corrupt, is a human being with some rights and he cannot always place himself at the disposal of a wandering foreigner. Moreover, in a poverty-stricken country, his resources are sometimes limited, while the men who are wanted may have work of their own which they do not care to leave. In the rice planting or harvesting season when every able-bodied man is toiling in the fields, it is intolerable to have a white man come along and present an order for carriers from the Government at Seoul. Besides, the magistrates have learned from painful experience that money advanced to travelers on a kwan-ja is not always repaid. The traveler may be perfectly honest and pay the amount in full on his return to Seoul, but the Korean official who receives it may pocket the whole or a considerable part of it and the unhappy magistrate does not dare to make remonstrance. or, if he does, he gets no redress. So as a rule, it is wise to keep the kwan-ja in reserve. The sensible, kindly traveler who makes reasonable requests, pays fair prices and deals through an honest interpreter, will have little if any difficulty in procuring anything he really needs that the people can supply.

Proceeding by rail to Chemulpo, we here took the *Chou Kang,* a little twenty-five ton steamer, which bore us over smooth waters among the many islands dotting this lovely coast to Hai Ju. The trip ordinarily occupies twelve hours, but as we sat on the upper deck in the early evening, enjoying the soft glories of sunset on land and sea and the still softer beauties of the full moonlight which ere long flooded the scene, we learned that we could not reach our destination till midnight. As Hai Ju, where we intended to spend the night, was three and a half miles from the landing place, we decided to remain on board till morning. The tiny cabin was filled with Koreans eating rice and drinking sake, but after a while they left, and we stacked the table and chairs across the middle of the room, Dr. Avison and Mr. Sharp taking one of the improvised compartments and Mrs. Brown and I the other, a sharp bump on the head emphasizing the fact that the ceiling was only five feet. The cabin was only wide enough for three and a Japanese policeman was already asleep on our side. But we rolled ourselves up in our rugs and lay down on the floor. Though the accommodations were somewhat inferior to those on the *Campania,* Mrs. Brown, as well as the rest of us, slept soundly till half-past five the next morning, when we were roused by a boy standing beside our open window and bawling to some one on shore. As we were already dressed, we were soon on

deck. While our luggage was being transferred, Dr. Avison talked with the sampan men about Christ. Without attracting their attention or his, I touched my kodak button that I might preserve the picture of the faithful missionary and the intent faces of those ignorant men as for the first time they heard the sweet and simple story of divine love.

What a glorious morning it was! The air was deliciously cool and bracing. The water flashed in the bright sunlight and the shore view was superb—a green valley, a fine hill beyond it and, in the farther background, noble mountains. After a hurried breakfast from our stores, we went ashore in the inevitable sampan and after the necessary dickering for bullocks to carry our luggage, started for Hai Ju. That three and a half mile walk I shall never forget. The scenery was beautiful beyond description. Nothing else that we had seen thus far had equalled it. Up and down high hills we went, the views commanding wide sweeps of ocean and bay, of carefully tilled fields and blossoming fruit trees and thatched farm houses which, in such environment, looked far more attractive than they really were. Just before reaching the city, we topped a crest from which we looked upon the lovely valley in which lies the walled city of Hai Ju. It is a considerable place of about 10,000 inhabitants. The houses were of course the typical low, thatched roofed houses of the Koreans, but the wall appeared massive and its gates rose impressively above it. I never saw a more charming situation.

Several Christians with clean, shining faces and spotless raiment, some of them young men and others mothers with babies on their backs, met us with cordial welcome at the top of the hill and escorted us into the Wilson Memorial House, a Korean building which was bought with funds contributed by friends in Newark, New Jersey. It is kept as a kind of prophet's chamber for the visiting missionaries. It was once the home of a well-to-do Korean, and while native in its style and appointments, it serves its new purpose admirably. We gratefully entered it and were soon in a white-washed room with new matting upon the floor and not an insect in sight—a remarkable combination in a Korean building. We put up our light cots, opened our bedding and in a jiffy were very comfortable. As the Korean Christians begged us to spend the day with them, we decided to do so.

There are no resident white men in Hai Ju and the only one who is regularly seen is Dr. Underwood, the Presbyterian missionary who itinerates through this region twice a year. The arrival of our party was therefore quite an event. The people pressed about us in great crowds. They knew Dr. Avison as the wonderful foreign doctor from Seoul, and so they came to him with all their sick and suffering. It can readily be imagined that the number was considerable in a city of 10,000 inhabitants which has no foreign physician whatever, and many of the cases were pathetic in the extreme. Dr. Avison handled each one with tenderness as well as with skill, speaking to each one about the Good Physician in whose name he had come. Several times I was called upon to address the people through an interpreter. I sympathized with the late Dr. Maltbie D. Babcock who said that speaking through an interpreter was like speaking through an "interrupter," and that the result was "a compound dislocation of ideas with mortification immediately setting in." I had never realized before how much of the effect of public speech is dependent upon the continuous flow of language and the gradually increasing momentum. It was trying to speak two or three sentences and

house, the only one available, lived among the people and, by the exercise of patience and tact, quietly made his way into their confidence. In 1892 Mr. Moffett was joined by the Rev. Graham Lee, also a Presbyterian, and

TYPES OF KOREAN CHRISTIANS

by Dr. M. J. Hall of the Methodist Mission.

One of the notable Korean Christians was a man by the name of Kim Chang Sik. Brought by a Korean friend to the home of a missionary in Seoul, his curiosity was excited by some copies of the New Testament in Chinese. He bought one and read it. The result was his conversion. He quickly became a useful worker and in 1894 was sent to his own home in Pyeng Yang to aid Dr. Hall. But by this time, the opposition had become violent. Persecution broke out and Kim was one of the first to be arrested. He and other Christians were cruelly beaten, placed in stocks and warned that if they did not give up the foreigner's religion they would be further punished, but that if they did recant they would be set at liberty. The others in their pain and terror yielded, but Kim remained steadfast. He was taken to the death cell, but though believing that he would be decapitated if he did not recant, he nevertheless exclaimed in a spirit worthy of the ancient martyrs. "God loves me and has forgiven my sins. How can I curse Him! The foreigner is kind and pays my honest wages, why should I forsake him?" Fortunately orders came from Seoul to release the prisoners and the mangled and half dead Kim went out with the others. But his fidelity made a profound impression upon all who knew him and people began to say that there must be something real in the new religion when a man was willing to suffer so much for it.

Then in 1894 the war broke out between China and Japan. As during the earlier stages of the Russia-Japan war, Korea became the battle-ground of the contending forces. The Koreans were thrown into a panic as it became known that in July the Japanese had

TYPES OF KOREAN CHRISTIAN WOMEN

captured Seoul and that they were making their way northward. Mrs. Underwood, who was in Seoul at the time, wrote:

"All the legations ordered up troops from the port where our gunboats lay, for our protection, although it is difficult to see how, in a case of serious danger, such small numbers would be of any service. There were fifty Russians, forty Americans, forty English and nine German marines. The natives, high and low, were in a state of panic. The nobility fled from their homes in large numbers and in all sorts of disguises, and sought refuge at the foreign legations in the country; and to the country

tors were slow in grasping them and that it was many weary decades before Christianity was clearly understood even by Anglo-Saxons. It is not surprising therefore that the superstition-clouded Korean listened dully and thought the missionary "a setter forth of strange gods." If the intellectual Athenians mocked the Apostle Paul when he preached to them Christ and the resurrection, what could be expected of the darkened Koreans? Gradually however the truth made its way and Dr. Underwood baptized the first convert in 1886. The first Protestant Church in Korea was organized in Seoul, September, 1887, and the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper was administered the first time, Christmas Day of that year in Mr. Underwood's house. At that time only seven baptized Christians could be mustered. But after ten years of patient labors by the missionaries of several denominations there were still only 141 baptized Christians in all Korea.

Nor was persecution wanting. The work had early found a foothold in Pyeng Yang, the next largest city in the country. Some Koreans who had wandered northward into Manchuria had there come under the influence of Mr. Boss and had been led to Christ. Returning to Korea they were more fully instructed by the missionaries in Seoul, and then they undertook to communicate their new faith to their countrymen. By 1887 there were several interested inquirers in Pyeng Yang, and a native helper was stationed there to preach to them. Soon after the Rev. Samuel A. Moffett arrived in Korea in 1889, he went to Pyeng Yang. He found appalling moral conditions, for Pyeng Yang was notorious as the wickedest city in Korea. A tiny company gathered about him, but the difficulties were numerous and formidable. A faint hearted man would have been discouraged and driven out, but Mr. Moffett took a poor little Korean

ONE FORM OF INFANT SEPULTURE IN KOREA

that they had all we wanted. We couldn't spend another day haggling, so we extemporized another chair, hired men to carry it, piled the most necessary supplies on the two oxen and started, leaving Dr. Avison's medicine boy and Mr. Sharp's helper to find other oxen and follow us when they could. They were successful and joined us later in the day.

Although we were only four foreigners and traveling as lightly as possible,

KOREAN INN NEAR HAI JU

yet our cavalcade was considerable. We had four bullocks, one pony and three chairs. As each bullock and the pony had a separate man, as each chair had four bearers and as we had a Korean cook, the Christian helper for this field, and Dr. Avison's hospital assistant, we made up a party of twenty-four persons and five animals. Besides there were several Korean Christians who accompanied us on their own account, taking advantage of our company to make a trip to their former homes.

Our chairs proved so easy that after a day's ride of twenty-five or thirty miles we were not exhausted. Mr. Sharp and I changed back and forth several times between the one pony and the chair, and I found the pony the less desirable of the two.

The Korean pony is not an attractive beast either in size or disposition. There were no foreign saddles, and we found that it was customary to pile our bedding on top of the little animal and then to climb on top and let the feet dangle about the pony's neck. It was not a comfortable position and as it was impossible to hold on to anything and as the typical pony is restless and vicious, the possibilities of disaster were numerous. The ponies that are available for this purpose are nearly all stallions and though they are not large, they are tough and have remarkable powers of endurance. Their savagery is a proverb. They are willing to fight everything and everybody at all times and places. No matter how heavily they may be loaded or how tired they ought to be after a day's journey, they will attack one another with the furious glee of an Irishman at a Donnybrook Fair. Even after the most toilsome journey, it is ordinarily necessary to chain them to their troughs while they are feeding, while at night they are fastened by ropes hung from the rafters of the inn and passing under them in such a way that they are partially suspended. Whether this is simply a custom or to keep them from fighting or to prevent them from lying down, it would be difficult to say, though probably all three reasons enter, for the Koreans have an idea that a pony must never be allowed to lie down. They also insist that he must not be permitted to drink water when it can possibly be avoided, his food consisting of chopped millet stalks, rice husks, bran and beans, all boiled together and served hot as a thin gruel.

The Rev. James S. Gale in his inimitable "Korean Sketches" writes:

"Among the creatures that have crossed my path, the one that has had the most influence on my personal character is the Korean pony. It would be impossible to recount the varied experiences through which he has led me. Instead of lifting my hand and pointing to some noted professor or eminent divine as the master spirit of my life, I stand a safe distance off.

point to the Korean pony and say, 'He has brought more out of me that all the others combined.' In his company I have been surprised at the amount of concentrated evil I have found in my heart; again, as he has carried me safely along the dizziest edge, I could have turned angel and taken him upon my back.

"My usual pony has been, not one of your well-groomed steeds from the palace stables, but a long-haired, hide-bound one, for which your whole heart goes out in pity. 'Weak creature,' you say, 'how easy it would be for him to expire.' But after a little experience of his company, you change your mind; for you find his heels are charged with the vitality of forked lightning, and that upon slight provocation he could bite through six inch armor-plate. Experience has taught me to treat him carefully, as you would an old fowling-piece loaded to kill and in danger of going off at any moment. In heart and soul he is a perfect fiend. Obstinacy is one of his commonest characteristics. He will have his own way as assuredly as any Korean coolie will have his. When the notion takes him, his neck is of brass and his ideas fixed as the king's ell."

But while the Korean pony is not to be made a friend of, he may be implicitly trusted in the most uncertain places. He will work like a Trojan and keep his footing on the edge of precipices which make the foreigner grow dizzy. Mine proved perfectly reliable in these respects, save of course when a bridge gave way under him, and then his rage soothed me for he gave expression to our common feelings.

The days of that interior trip were revelations that convinced us how much is missed by the traveler who visits only the cities. All the way the scenery was alternately beautiful and sublime. Nowhere else in the world have I seen anything surpassing it. The valleys were cultivated fields dotted with low, thatched farm houses, adorned with blossoming fruit trees and surrounded by noble mountains. From a crest over which our path wound, we commanded on one side a wide panorama of ocean and inlets, green islands and bold promontories, and on the other side hills and dales and meadows and majestic ranges piled high against the blue sky. Behind us lay Hai Ju, typically Asiatic within, but from our lofty viewpoint as beautiful for situation as an Alpine village.

We passed many quaint little villages nestling in the nooks of the hills, seeing much to interest and instruct. Here, as in China, it is customary for the farmers to segregate themselves into hamlets, going to their fields each morning and returning in the evening. However, this is not so exclusively the rule as in China so that here and there we saw an isolated farm house, though such houses were not common.

We stopped for tiffin at the village of Kerumajai, the whole population standing curiously by us and watching us as we ate. As usual, Mrs. Brown was the cynosure of all eyes. The people had occasionally seen a foreign man, but a white woman was rare and aroused as much excitement as a circus in a western American town. The Korean women thronged about her, feeling of her shoes and dress, trying on her hat, asking her to undo her hair, endeavoring to take off her wedding ring and rubbing her cheek to see whether her white complexion would come off, all the while excitedly jabbering and laughing at so strange an object as an American woman. But they were always good natured and Mrs. Brown took their attentions with like good nature, though there must have been times when such personal liberties were rather irksome. Privacy was impossible and she was obliged not only to eat but to retire at night and to dress in the morning with the inquisitive eyes of Korean women at every chink. If there was none, the oiled paper on the windows was broken and the space quickly filled with the tousled heads of the curious. After days and nights of such experiences, it was a relief to enter a missionary home or a village where the Christians

sage of fourteen hours brought us to grief. The winds and tides that alternately sweep back and forth between the Japan and Eastern seas usually keep the Korean Strait in an agitated state, and this time a recent storm had stirred up a furious sea. All night our little Japanese steamer pitched and rolled through the assaulting waves, while we—

Well, I told the "boy" to call us an hour before reaching Fusan. He smiled assent and called us ten minutes before instead of sixty. Hastily tumbling out of our berths we jumped into a waiting sampan with the hospital

WORKMEN DRAWING ROLLER
Illustrating the Korean practise of working in companies instead of singly.

missionaries who had already boarded the steamer. As it was nearly half past ten o'clock, there was no time for breakfast nor had we appetite for it. So we proceeded at once to the dispensary building where the Korean Christians had for some time been awaiting us, troops of them having met us at the foot of the hill and escorted us up the road. The sea-sickness from which we had just risen was not the best preparation for speaking. But after a felicitous address of welcome by one of the Koreans, interpreted for me by Dr. Irvin, a hundred voices rose in a song of praise. Such congregational singing! It was so hearty and yet so truly worshipful that it was a physical and spiritual tonic. But not a line could I understand till suddenly I caught the words: "Jesus, Hallelujah." There being no Korean equivalents for them, the missionaries had taught the people to use the terms so familiar to us. We forgot our sea-sickness as those wondrous words sounded in our ears. I could have had no more inspiring theme and so I preached on the meaning of "Jesus, Hallelujah."

Wherever we went in Korea nothing stirred us more deeply than the singing of the Korean Christians, and our experience at Fusan was repeated many times. A stranger in a strange land enters a room filled with strange people who greet him in a strange tongue and then begin to sing a strange tune. Such congregational singing I never heard in America. The voices were not always melodious nor did they always keep the key. But the singing plainly voiced the aspirations of a fervent and genuine experience. Those Koreans sang as they prayed—with all their hearts. Unfamiliar as the language is, the visitor is thrilled by the exultant ring of a living, joyous faith. Suddenly, from out of the unintelligible words, there fairly leaps one that he recognizes—the word that is the same in all languages, the sweetest name that e'er was sung—"Jesus." And the mud walls and the dark faces and all the strange surroundings fade from view and the visitor feels that he is no longer among strangers but in the household of faith and love.

I have since journeyed far and have seen many places and peoples. But there still lives to my vision the humble chapels on those Korean hills with worshiping Koreans sitting Oriental fashion on the floor. I can see their faces light up as I spoke to them of Jesus as our revelation of the love of God, Jesus as our Saviour from sin, Jesus as our Friend and King, Jesus as the Giver of such peace and

delighted natives though they only meant a few cents to us, and soon we were seated cross-legged on an earthen floor, feasting on a four-course dinner consisting of rice and clam-broth, rice and eggs, rice and chicken, and rice and honey.

Eight miles farther we saw a group of white figures awaiting us on the top of a hill. It was a delegation from Sorai to bid us welcome, and escorted by intelligent looking people whose faces beamed with happiness, we entered the village whose reputation ought to be as wide as Christendom. Think of a village of fifty-eight houses, in fifty of which all persons over fifteen years of age are Christians, a community in which there is no liquor, no brawling, no vice of any kind, where the Sabbath is scrupulously kept and where the entire population attends

SAU KYUNG JO, THE FAMOUS SORAI ELDER

church, Sunday school, and prayer-meeting!

We were domiciled in two of the class rooms of that church. It is a notable building for Korea and almost imposing in comparison with the humble homes about it, standing on an eminence commanding a wide view and on the edge of a grove which was once the center of heathen worship. It was dedicated in June, 1896, and was the first church built in Korea built wholly by Koreans, the people themselves buying all the materials and doing all the work.

Two brothers were God's instruments in creating this model Christian village. I had already met one of them —Suk (or Sau) Kyung Jo. He had gone to Seoul on purpose to escort us to Sorai, but through a misunderstanding as to the time of our departure, he arrived after we had started. Keenly disappointed but not dismayed, he took the next train to Chemulpo, traveled a day and a night in a small sampan over the route we had come by steamer, and then without stopping to rest he had walked thirty-five miles till he overtook us, footsore and weary, but happy in finding us. When I recalled the roughness of the road and observed that he was over fifty years of age, I marveled again.

I heard from him his own account of what God had done for them. Nineteen years ago the elder brother, then living at Eui Ju, journeyed into Manchuria, where he was converted by the Rev. John Ross, the great Scotch missionary. Soon after his return to Korea, he went to Seoul to seek more information about Christianity and to secure if possible some books. He met Dr. Underwood who gladly gave him the instruction he was so eager to obtain. Then, filled with joy and zeal, like Andrew of old, "He first findeth his own brother and saith unto him, 'We have found the Messiah,' and he brought him to Jesus." Removing to Sorai, these brothers preached the Gospel with such power and exemplified it with such beauty of character that the whole village was transformed.

Later in 1893 when Mr. Mackenzie,

CHRISTIANS GATHERED TO BID FAREWELL TO DR. AND MRS. BROWN

still 'the power of God to salvation to everyone that believeth."

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REVIEW QUESTIONS

CHAPTERS I AND II—INTRODUCTION AND THE GATEWAYS OF KOREA.

1. What points are touched in going from New York to Korea, via India?
2. How does this route compare in length and expense with the trip via the Pacific?
3. What is the size of Korea?
4. Describe the physical characteristics of the country.
5. What are the general characteristics of Fusan?
7. What success has attended mission work at Taiku?

sorrowful experience. He had come from Nova Scotia in 1893, and had found Sau Kyung Jo already leading the Christian community in Sorai. He was a consecrated, indefatigable missionary, big in both body and heart and so persuasively commanding that he not only prevented a robber band from attacking Sorai but actually converted the chieftain. But in a frenzy of delerium caused by a fever, he shot himself in June, 1895. The poor people mourned as for a brother and buried him among their own dead. The grave has no mark, for every Korean for miles around knows it and it no more needs a sign than the mountain which silently looks down upon it. As we stood beside that lonely grave and gazed upon the sanctuary close beside it, the Christian homes clustering at the foot of the hill, the wide expanse of meadow beyond, and farther away but in plain view the quiet sea, the clouds which had heavily lowered over us all the day suddenly broke, the setting sun burst forth in tender glories, and at the evening time there was light. The sound of a trumpet was heard. Softly and yet clearly it echoed among the trees and through the village, and soon answering groups of white-robed figures were wending their way up the hillside to the house of God, where we communed long with them as the shadows fell and the stars came out.

After a Sunday in Sorai which saw three congregations, one numbering 325, we journeyed Monday morning over an undulating grassy prairie to a narrow valley which led us deeply into the famous Pul Tai San, or Great Mountains of Buddha. Soon we had to dismount and begin a steep climb of two hours and a half over the Tai Kyung Kol Pass, which means "the Valley of Great Sights." It is a fitting name. Seldom have I seen nobler scenery. Mighty must have been the elemental forces which once convulsed this region, upheaving those stupendous masses of rock to dizzy heights, the strata often standing perpendicularly in mute but majestic witness to the omnipotence of the power which had hurled them upwards. And yet amid all this sublimity of chaos we found a flora so abundant that in a few hours Mrs. Brown collected specimens of no less than sixty varieties of flowers, many of them delicately beautiful, though only two were fragrant. On the summit of the Pass, we had a view which brought to mind the reverent lines of Wordsworth:

"Were there below a spot of holy ground,
Where from distress a refuge might be found,
And solitude prepare the soul for heaven;
Sure Nature's God to man that spot had given
Where falls the purple morning far and wide
In flakes of light upon the mountain side;
Where with loud voice the power of water
shakes
The leafy wood, or sleeps in quiet lakes."

Emerging from the mountains into a broad, cultivated valley, we stopped for a late tiffin at Wu Dong. We did not need to be told that there were Christians here, for as usual we had been met several miles out by smiling people, and as we drew near, we saw the tall pole with its fluttering flag—the happy custom of the Korean Churches so that everyone knows where the "Jesus Church" is. As at all our stopping places, throngs gathered about the "pu-een," as they always called Mrs. Brown. The missionaries say that the word means "a queenly woman" so that I naturally regard them as a people of excellent judgment. Seated on the floor native fashion, we enjoyed the rice, eggs, and chicken which the hospitable people provided and for which they refused to accept any compensation. Then we held a short service, the audience filling the little church and every outside space within hearing.

Evening found us at the walled town of Chang Yun. A Christian family

kindly welcomed us and soon our arrival was known among the 2,000 people of the place. Presently the curious crowd silently parted and a boy hobbled in on one foot and crouched at Dr. Avison's feet. The Doctor was tired after a hard day's travel, but his kind heart could not resist that mute appeal. But alas, he could do nothing. The trouble was a dislocated hip of such long standing that the limb had grown solidly in its unnatural position and could only be remedied by surgical treatment so heroic as to be quite out of the question with a pocket case of instruments and in a few hours stay. So he could only speak sympathetically to the boy and promise treatment if his father could bring him to the mission hospital in Seoul. "He has had sores there, hasn't he?" I asked as I pointed to the many scars on the deformed hip. "No,"

KOREAN OX-CART

said the Doctor, "those are places where the Korean doctors have thrust in needles to kill the devil that is supposed to cause the pain!" My heart was heavy for the poor little fellow as he limped away, for he had a good face, pitiful now in its expression of disappointment and agony.

No sooner had he gone, than another boy of about the same age, twelve, showed a stiff arm. Rolling up the sleeve, Dr. Avison found a dislocated elbow. Eight months before the accident had happened, and in this case also a new and permanent adhesion had formed. But this admitted of speedier treatment, and so then and there the boy was given an anaesthetic and the useless arm was pulled and bent into the proper shape. How bravely and trustfully the boy looked into the face of the physician, who, he knew, was about to hurt him. But the Doctor is a true missionary physician. I have seen him take frightened, dirty, vermin-infested children in his arms, soothe and pet them into quietness and then tenderly examine and treat some sore so hideous as to make one shudder.

As we were about to eat our supper, a middle-aged man staggered in. The white clothing of the Koreans is attractive when it is clean, but this man's soiled raiment had evidently never been pounded by the clubs with which the Korean women belabor clothing in washing it, while his skin was caked with the accumulations of years of filthy habits. Untying a rag about his foot, he exhibited a frightful ulcer. Inquiry developed the fact that a blister had once formed on his ankle. By the advice of the native doctor, he had smeared it with oil and then set it on fire in order to burn out the imaginary demon. Dirt, neglect, and flies had aggravated the resultant sore until the bones were literally rotting away. It was plainly a hospital case and he was therefore advised to go there after the Doctor's return. "How can I travel 170 miles to Seoul with no money and such a foot?" plaintively queried the sufferer. True, but how could the necessary operation be performed amid the septic conditions of a Korean hut and with the few instruments the Doctor had brought along? Moreover, we had to attend a meeting that evening and start on our journey early the next morning. So the man

went away sorrowful. But his pitiable state haunted us. Would it not be better to risk an operation here with what was at hand than to leave the man to rot? At eleven o'clock that night it was so decided. The man was hunted up and told that if he would come at four o'clock the next morning the Doctor would do what he could for him. He gladly came. There are no tables in these native houses and so the patient was laid on the floor. The scanty supply of ether would keep him unconscious only a few minutes, and in such primitive surroundings and with the dim light of a cloudy morning struggling through the open door, the Doctor hastily washed and cut and scraped and cleaned that foulest foot I ever saw. Then leaving careful directions for daily dressing with a young man who had formerly assisted him in the Seoul hospital, we wended our way onward, believing that in spite of the rude conditions a man's life had been saved.

But these are among the common experiences of a medical missionary's life. In Fusan before the erection of the new hospital, I visited some of Dr. Irwin's patients—cases of pneumonia and Bright's disease and inflammation of the bowels, as well as several surgical cases, all in wretched, dark, unventilated, ill-smelling native hovels. In Pyeng Yang, Dr. Wells has frequently performed difficult operations in kitchens and sheds. Even the famous Government Hospital in Seoul was nothing but a rambling collection of native houses, so utterly inadequate and so destitute of sanitary and antiseptic conveniences that a New York surgeon would have been horrified at the suggestion that operations could be performed in them. Fortunately funds for hospitals at all these places have now been provided. But every time the medical missionary goes into the country village, the old conditions recur. Within an hour after our arrival in Sin An Po, Dr. Wells was visited by twenty-seven sick people whose maladies ranged from ulcerated teeth to epilepsy.

A BULLOCK LADEN WITH BAGGAGE

That entire trip through the villages of Korea was a revelation to us. We journeyed by so circuitous a path in order to see as many of the outstations as possible that we covered over 300 miles. Everywhere the Christians were hospitable and affectionate, while in several places the evidences of the Gospel's transforming power were wonderful. In Eul Yul, for example, a town of 4,000 inhabitants, there were no Christians three years before our visit. Then one of its prominent men went to Seoul to buy an office. He met Dr. Underwood, was converted. put his money into Bibles and tracts instead of an office, returned and distributed them among his fellow-townsmen. They responded at once. Now there are more than a hundred baptized Christians in Eul Yul and a considerable number of catechumens.

The people have built, unaided, a neat little church, donated half the cost of the native house set apart for the use of the visiting missionary and pay all their congregational expenses.

As this was the last outstation of the Seoul field, our ideal traveling companions, Dr. Avison and Mr. Sharp left us here and we were taken in charge by Mr. Hunt and Dr. Wells of Pyeng Yang, who with equal kindness and skill led us through many other villages each with its own story of God's gracious dealings with men. Every night, we had a picture in chiaroscuro of the spiritual condition of Asia—a humble church whose flickering oil lamps filled the interior with a light, not strong indeed, but yet sufficiently clear to make the room bright in contrast with the surrounding darkness and to bring into strong relief the little company of believers, rejoicing because they were within the pale of "his marvelous light." Just beyond them and crowding the doors were many others not yet wholly in the light but partially illuminated by it, with eager faces toward the place from which it was shining and where a man was speaking of the Light of the world. Behind these were still others whom I could not count, standing in deeper shadows. Now and then a flare of the lamp shot a ray of light into the gloom and showed scores of spectators, some indifferent, some curious, some gravely wondering, and then the darkness would silently enfold them again so that only indistinct masses of heavier blackness showed where an unnumbered multitude was gathered. I thought of a remark of the Rev. Dr. W. R. Richards after his return from Mexico as I looked upon this scene night after night, and while encouraged by the number of those who have come into the light, I am with him "burdened for those who are standing in the dark."

Over more hills and through more valleys we traveled, crossing an inlet of the sea with wide, steep mud banks through which coolies carried us on their backs, carefully picking our way across innumerable flooded rice fields where our path wound along the narrow slippery tops of the dividing embankments, till we reached Whang Ju, where for the first time we struck the main road between Seoul and Pyeng Yang. The Rev. Dr. Graham Lee met us here on a bicycle which drew such admiring crowds that our progress through the streets to the church was like a royal procession. Near the gate, for this is a walled city of 5,000 souls, we passed a sorcerer with two assistants, beating a drum, clanging cymbals and shaking strings of bells—a hideous din, the object of which was to frighten away an evil spirit that was making a little child ill.

Saturday was cold and windy and we traveled a hundred li to Pyeng Yang in a heavy, driving rain. The coolies and ponies had a hard time in the sticky, slippery clay. But the elements did not prevent Mrs. Lee, Mrs. Hunt, Mrs. Wells and Miss Ogilvie from meeting us at Chung Wha, thirteen miles out, nor did they deter scores of Christians from tramping several miles through the mud and rain to give us a hearty welcome. Both ladies and natives brought bountiful refreshments with them, and we had a picnic lunch of the most delightful kind in spite of the dripping skies and the fighting, squealing ponies in the inn courtyard. And so after a journey of twelve days, one on train and the little steamer and eleven in chairs, on ponies and afoot, visiting many outstations and speaking daily to crowds of Koreans, we arrived at the historic old city of Pyeng Yang.

Pyeng Yang and Beyond

PYENG YANG is the second city in Korea and the metropolis of about 4,000,000 people who live in forty-four counties of the North and South Pyeng An provinces. It boasts many historic associations, for it has been for centuries one of the leading cities of Korea and many important events have occurred within its walls.

First in historic significance was the arrival of Kija, with whom it may be said that Korean history really begins. Kija was a Chinese mandarin of prominence and power in his own country who fell under the disfavor of the Emperor and at the head of about 5,000 followers took refuge in Korea in 1122 B. C. Sailing up the Tai-tong, he established himself at Pyeng Yang. Little is known regarding the aboriginal inhabitants that he found, but it is certain that the country was inhabited at that time. Kija, however, soon became the dominant force in Korea and introduced the essential elements of Chinese civilization. The dynasty which he founded lasted for seven centuries. Pyeng Yang was the capital and as such was the most famous city of the kingdom. The remains of the massive wall that Kija built can still be seen. It follows the river bank for miles and indicates a city of considerably larger size than the present one. The tomb of Kija occupies a beautiful grove on a hill near by. A stone tablet on the road below bears an inscription to the effect that those who approach on horseback should dismount at so sacred a place. There is a temple which for Korea is a very fine one, and at the foot of the hill there is another temple to the God of War.

Of the other historic associations of Pyeng Yang, the one which will probably interest the traveler most is the scene of the great battle between the Chinese and Japanese in the China-Japan War of 1894. The Japanese were not at that time so efficiently equipped and disciplined as they are to-day, but they were so far superior to the Chinese that the conflict was rather a slaughter than a battle. The Chinese approached their enemies with all the lofty confidence which characterizes them, not dreaming but that the foe would be easily dispelled. Each officer carried an umbrella and a fan. All the precautions of warfare were sublimely ignored. With waving banners and gorgeous panoply the generals marched at the head of their stupid and ill-equipped soldiers, for it must be remembered that in China only the lowest classes of the people enter the ranks. The result was appalling. The plain near Pyeng Yang quickly became a shambles as the Japanese with hardly any loss to themselves practically annihilated their enemies.

The unsanitary condition of Pyeng Yang, a city of 80,000 inhabitants, was made worse by the superstitious belief of the people that the city was a boat and that to dig wells would make holes in its bottom so that it would sink. Just outside the city there is a ponderous stone pillar which is believed to be the anchor which holds the boat from drifting away. In these circumstances the only available water supply was the river and as that was polluted by the great number of bodies of men and animals, typhus fever and dysentery developed and swept among the poor Koreans with frightful virulence. To the inexpressible regret of all who knew him, the beloved Dr. Hall of the Methodist Mission was among those who were stricken.

The Methodists and Presbyterians are both at work in Pyeng Yang, the missionaries of the two denominations amicably dividing the territory and coöperating in the most brotherly fashion. The Presbyterians have a very large work. On the Sunday after my

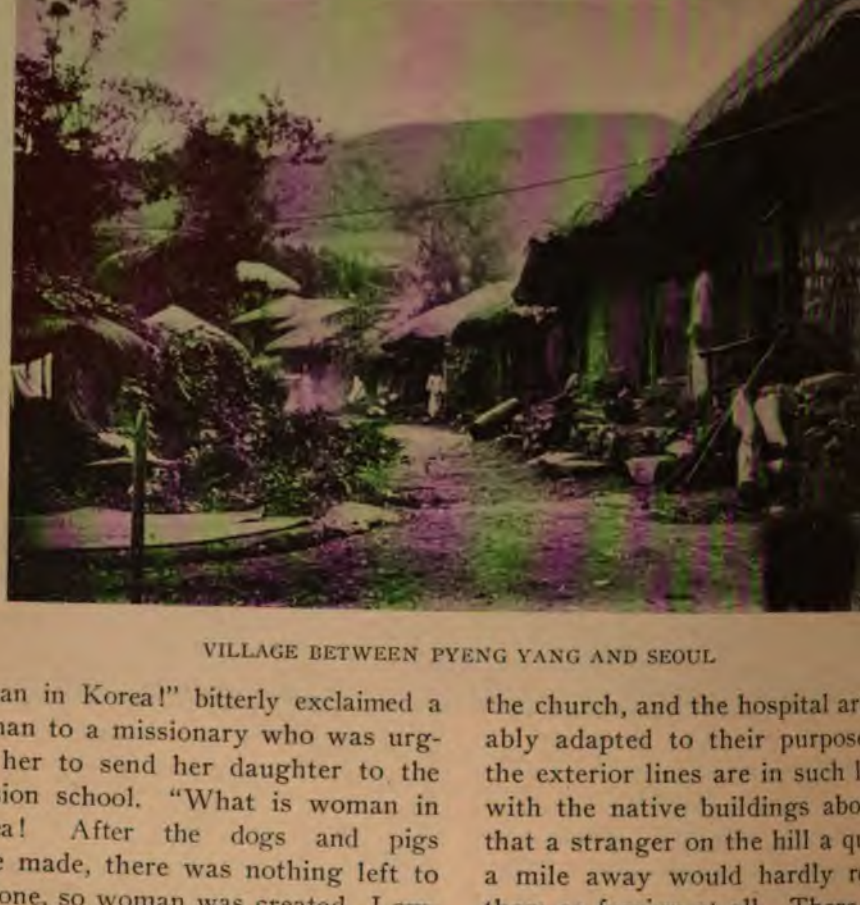
OLD AND NEW IN KOREA

Elders of Pyeng Yang church and most famous Buddhist temple.

Koreans chosen by the station. The plan contemplates the joint coöperation of foreigners and natives in the development of the school and looks forward to the time when, like all the work, it may be turned over to the Korean church for support and control. A curriculum covering five years has been adopted, and with it a graded course of six years for the primary schools, so that their pupils may be prepared for the Academy. The course of study for the primary schools was sent out to all the country schools as a model. Believing that the character of inducements held out to pupils will materially affect the character of the schools as Christian or otherwise, secular inducements, such as the teaching of English, teaching of trades or professions which would open up the prospects of tempting worldly positions, have not been offered.

The students are eager to study. The average academic work is good and their speaking shows marked ability. All are professing Christians and their participation in religious work shows that many of them are heartily in earnest. Their school prayer-meeting is usually full of life. They take part in five country Sunday schools, besides two in the city. They go into the street on Sunday and invite strangers to church. They visit the aged and sick, reading and praying with them and teaching them to read, and in various unostentatious ways show their zeal. They have printed at their own expense 5,000 copies of a sheet tract written by one of their own number, which they distribute on the streets.

The education of girls is not yet so well developed. But there are several primary schools and a boarding school has recently been started. The difficulties are greater than with boys owing to the Korean feeling that girls are not worth educating. "What



VILLAGE BETWEEN PYENG YANG AND SEOUL

woman in Korea!" bitterly exclaimed a woman to a missionary who was urging her to send her daughter to the mission school. "What is woman in Korea! After the dogs and pigs were made, there was nothing left to be done, so woman was created. Lowest of the low!" The Christians, however, are quicker to see the need of education for their girls and as the ideals of the Gospel become known, new ambitions are stirred.

The new building of the Caroline A. Ladd Hospital, the gift of Mrs. Wm. S. Ladd of Portland, Oregon, is not yet completed. But a large medical work has been carried on for nearly a decade by Dr. J. Hunter Wells. The number of patients treated last year was 14,507. The handsome new hospital will soon add greatly both to the attractiveness and the efficiency of this beneficent work.

In building their houses, the missionaries have wisely conformed as far as practicable to native ideas. The residences are as comfortable as could reasonably be desired. The academy, the church, and the hospital ar ably adapted to their purpos the exterior lines are in such with the native buildings abo that a stranger on the hill a q a mile away would hardly them as foreign at all. There ing obtrusively alien in their ance, nothing to suggest that institutions are essentially They look as if Christianity h itself very much at home in had taken root in native soil come part of the country. Th ings are enough better than th native ones to be an object l the people of the possibilities own style of architecture, eno perior to suggest that religio have worthy visible form. Bu same time they are within the a legitimate expectation as to native church can ere long do f

North of Pyeng Yang, the becomes even more striki mountains higher, the valleys er, but as elsewhere very fertil Chyun, 100 miles distant will